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The study was designed: (1) to investigate civic, recreational, and extra-curricular activities in which teachers in rural schools participated; (2) to find out what percent of rural teachers originally came from rural communities; (3) to discover advantages and disadvantages of teaching in rural schools; (4) to determine areas of preservice preparation in which rural teachers believed they were most adequately prepared; and (5) to determine those areas of preservice preparation in which rural teachers believed work should either be initiated or improved. A questionnaire, disseminated to over 1,500 rural teachers in 10 rural states, was utilized to gather the data for the study. Seven findings led to the conclusions that rural teachers needed preparation different from that of urban teachers, teacher education programs were not meeting the needs of rural teachers, personal identification with and liking for the rural community were important factors in teacher satisfaction with the rural school, the main advantages of the rural school were the opportunity for personal interaction with the students and the opportunity to belong to the rural community; lack of facilities was a widely noted disadvantage. Numerous recommendations were developed for teacher preparation programs and for further research. Sample size and questionnaire methods are noted among the limitations. Samples of the questionnaire and letters are included. (SW)

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# THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

by

Edgar Bishop Charles

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

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In the Graduate College

THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

1969

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## STATEMENT BY AUTHOR

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"Paradoxical as it may seem, the city is older than the country...man made the city, and after he became sufficiently civilized, not afraid of solitude, and knew on what terms to live with nature, God promoted him to life in the country."

-- John Burroughs

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# ABSTRACT

This study was designed to serve five purposes: (1) to investigate the civic, recreational, and extra-curricular activities in which teachers in rural schools participated; (2) to find out what per cent of rural teachers originally came from rural communities; (3) to discover the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in rural schools; (4) to determine the areas of preservice preparation in which rural teachers believed they were most adequately prepared; and (5) to determine those areas of preservice preparation in which rural teachers believed work should either be initiated or improved.

The study began in October, 1967. A questionnaire was developed with the help of seven experts in rural education. Early in 1968 dissemination of the questionnaire was begun to 1511 teachers in rural schools. The questionnaires were distributed almost evenly among rural teachers in ten rural states. These states included Arkansas, Kentucky, Maine, Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming. The deadline for return of the questionnaires was July 6, 1968. At that time 1148 had been returned, of which 1120 were usable.

The following statements represent a few of the findings of the study:

1. Sixty-four per cent of the teachers indicated that agriculture was the chief source of income for residents in their

geographical areas. Ten other major sources of income were also presented, one of which was welfare.

2. The average number of years of teaching experience represented by the study was 13.1 years, ranging from one year of experience to forty-nine years.
3. In the overall group, thirty-two per cent were not fully certified when they began teaching in rural schools. At the time of the study, twelve per cent were not certified.
4. The percentage of unmarried teachers and the percentage married to other teachers each represented twenty per cent of the total group.
5. The group was made up of sixty-nine per cent teachers raised in rural communities and thirty-one per cent raised in urban communities.
6. Over ninety-three per cent of each of the groups indicated that they preferred to teach in rural schools.
7. A total of fifteen civic activities were reported by the teachers, but participation was only high in church activities, hobby groups, and recreational activities.

The following conclusions were drawn on the basis of data collected in the study:

1. The rural teacher showed need for a preparation which differed from that of urban teachers. As long as rural people have common experiences and interests, they will have to have teachers who understand and can interact with them.

2. Teacher education programs were not meeting the needs of teachers for rural schools. Particularly, those scholastic areas which had a definite rural orientation were either being very poorly taught or completely neglected. The poorest area of preparation appeared to be in methods courses. These were almost unanimously denounced as being trivial, a waste of time, poorly planned, and other similar descriptions.
3. Comparison of the listed advantages of rural schools with the number of teachers preferring rural schools indicated that personal identification with and liking for the rural community were important factors in teacher satisfaction with the rural school.
4. The main advantages of the rural school were the opportunity to be close to the students and know them better, the opportunity to belong in the rural community, the individual attention that can be given students, and the physical advantages of rurality. The only disadvantage widely noted was the apparent lack of adequate facilities.

# CHAPTER I

## THE PROBLEM AND PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

In the past twenty-five years, American education has become recognized for what it is, an extremely complicated process. No longer is it concerned with merely teaching skills or preparing boys and girls for college. Today the high schools are far more comprehensive, and the elementary schools use the skill subjects primarily as tools for other enrichments. The schools are now serving children whose wide range of capabilities and disabilities require an educational program that is multipurposed and often multidirectional.

The teacher of today not only faces the problem of understanding each individual student but also that of being able to meet both the specific and divergent needs of each one. As Cole stated: "Next to a child's parents, his teachers are the most important formative influences in his life . . . In the promotion of mental health and normal personalities she is undoubtedly the key person in the educational world."[1]

There can be no question in anyone's mind about the importance of teacher preparation in any school. It is especially important in the rural school, because its graduates must be prepared for occupations that are largely rural oriented if they remain in the rural area. If they do not remain in rural areas, they must be prepared for occupations in our towns and cities. If they choose to further their education they must then be prepared for college.[2]

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[1] Luella Cole, Psychology of Adolescence (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1959), p. 618.

Numerous studies have tended to show that the rural school has not been meeting this challenge successfully. Studies by Beers and Heflin,[3] Burchinal and Jacobson,[4] Lipset,[5] Shannon,[6] and Feldman and Peevez[7] all concluded that the rural background groups studied had far less successful occupational achievement patterns than their urban-reared counterparts.

The perceptions of the teacher regarding both his role as teacher and the roles of the children and school become acutely important if socioculturally deprived rural children are exposed to a poorly staffed, ill-equipped necessary rural school.[8] It is here that the teacher's native abilities, the cultivation of his capacities in the art of teaching, and his general and specialized education become important issues. These taken together are the chief determinants of the kind and character of education available through the schools. They should be a matter of primary concern and responsibility for teacher education institutions.

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[2] William H. Sewell and Archibald O. Haller, "Educational and Occupational Perspectives of Farm and Rural Youth," in _Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change_. Edited by Lee G. Burchinal (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1965), Chapter 10.

[3] Howard W. Beers and Catherine Heflin, "Rural People in the City," _Bulletin 478_ (Lexington, Kentucky: Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station, 1945).

[4] Lee G. Burchinal and Perry O. Jacobson, "Migration and Adjustment of Farm and Non-Farm Families and Adolescents in Cedar Rapids, Iowa," _Bulletin 516_ (Ames, Iowa: Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station, June, 1963).

[5] Seymour Martin Lipset, "Social Mobility and Organization," _Rural Sociology_, XX (September, 1955), p. 220-228.

[6] Lyle W. Shannon, "Occupational and Residential Adjustment of Rural Migrants," _Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture_ (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1961), Chapter 11.

[7] Lloyd Feldman and Michael R. Peevez, _Young Workers: Their Special Training Needs_, Manpower Research Bulletin No. 3 (Washington: Government Printing Office, May, 1963).

Few teachers joining the staff of rural schools, however, have had anything in their preservice background which prepared them for the special problems of the rural community. Typically, they are isolated from professional supervision and help. This isolation often causes the teacher to reject the rural life.

All of the available evidence indicates that the small rural schools are here to stay. To operate these schools effectively, specially trained teachers are needed. Evidence regarding the specialized training of rural teachers is lacking, however. Furthermore, no substantial evidence exists concerning the nature of the specialized demands placed on rural teachers.

## Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the following questions:

1. What are those areas of preservice preparation which rural teachers think should either be improved upon or initiated?

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[8] See p. 8 for the definition of "necessary rural school."

2. What are the areas of preservice preparation in which rural teachers think they were most adequately prepared?
3. In what civic and recreational activities do rural teachers participate?
4. In what extra-curricular activities do rural teachers participate?
5. What per cent of rural teachers come from rural communities?
6. What do rural teachers perceive as the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in the rural school?

## Significance of the Problem

Rurality has been and continues to be an important part of the American educational scene. It is here that over half the school districts of the nation are found; it is here that the roots of America are established.[9] While the rural school is decreasing in numbers in some areas, all available evidence indicates that it will be perpetuated in numerous places. Many people seem to believe, however, that the rural school has virtually disappeared. The inaccuracy of such thinking is demonstrated in Table I, which shows that even the rural, one-teacher school is still very much in evidence.

The rural communities, however, seem to have certain inherent problems which most teachers are not prepared to meet and handle

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[9] Noble J. Gividen, High School Education for Rural Youth. Speech delivered at the National Conference on Problems of Rural Youth in a Changing Environment, September, 1963; and Education Directory, 1964-65, Part 2, "Public School Systems," Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1965), p. 6.

## TABLE I

## NUMBER OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS BY STATE: 1965-66[a]

| State | One-Teacher Schools | State | One-Teacher Schools |
|---|---|---|---|
| Alabama | 60 | Missouri | 138 |
| Alaska | 44 | Montana | 475 |
| Arizona | 26 | Nebraska | 1413 |
| Arkansas | 25 | Nevada | 20 |
| California | 143 | New Hampshire | 18 |
| Colorado | 29 | New Jersey | NR |
| Connecticut | 4 | New Mexico | 16 |
| Delaware | 2 | New York | NA |
| District of Columbia | 0 | North Carolina | 1 |
| Florida | 13 | North Dakota | 271 |
| Georgia | 3 | Ohio | 4 |
| Hawaii | 0 | Oklahoma | 106 |
| Idaho | 19 | Oregon | 27 |
| Illinois | 3 | Pennsylvania | 33 |
| Indiana | 5 | Rhode Island | 1 |
| Iowa | 10 | South Carolina | 0 |
| Kansas | NR | South Dakota | 1258 |
| Kentucky | 422 | Tennessee | 92 |
| Louisiana | 6 | Texas | 20 |
| Maine | 96 | Utah | 6 |
| Maryland | 11 | Vermont | 28 |
| Massachusetts | 4 | Virginia | 28 |
| Michigan | 200 | Washington | NA |
| Minnesota | 737 | West Virginia | 218 |
| Mississippi | 9 | Wisconsin | 8 |
|  |  | Wyoming | 121 |

NR - Not reported by these states

NA - Figures not available

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a. Richard H. Barr and Betty J. Foster, Preliminary Statistics of State School Systems, 1965-66, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1968), p. 7.

successfully. Evidence regarding the important but neglected part adequate teacher preparation plays in the rural school was expressed in a recent speech by Russell, who stated, "The primary concern of strengthening our rural schools is that we strengthen the quality of the teacher."[10] At the same conference, Cushman stated,

> The rural areas of the nation have had a disproportionate share of the teachers whose educational qualifications were below standard . . . It is a fact long well known and unfortunately accepted that rural school personnel, by comparison with corresponding urban personnel, have been badly under-prepared.[11]

Further, Wear asserted,

> The teacher coming into the rural community today must be prepared to become in important part of that community. He must be aware of the rural culture and its values, and he must be able to help the students develop the unique differences in their culture and their own self concepts. He must be able to work with adults and be a community leader, since you can't proceed much above the aspirations of the community. Unfortunately, very few teachers coming into the rural community have this preparation.[12]

At the same conference Franseth said that rural teachers need a special preparation which virtually no colleges give today. These teachers must be able to develop positive self concepts among the rural children. They must be able to bring cultural opportunities to the rural community and to take an active, leading part in community activities.[13]

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[10] George Russell, An Overview of Community and Area Planning for Rural Youth. Speech delivered at the National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, Washington, D. C., October 26-28, 1967.

[11] M. L. Cushman, The Status of Education and Training of Rural Youth--The Impact of Socioeconomic Change. Speech delivered at the National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, Washington, D. C., October 26-28, 1967.

[12] Pat Wear, Chairman of the Department of Education, Berea College, in a personal conversation with the writer at the Conference on Rural Education of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, in Oklahoma City, October 1-4, 1967. Permission to quote secured.

The significance of this study was further emphasized by the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, which stated:

> Competent and well-qualified teachers, administrators and other professional personnel are _equally essential for all children_, youth, and adults. To obtain such a staff, _it is of prime importance that there be continued re-evaluation of teacher preparation_, _both preservice and in-service_, _focused on the unique aspects of preparing teachers_, teachers of teachers, supervisors, and other educational specialists and administrators _for rural and rural-related schools_. _Such evaluation is mandatory in meeting the objective of quality and quantity education_.[14]

The same organization also emphasized the importance of rural education in the newly emerging nations of the world. It pointed out that in many instances the responsibility of setting up programs and training teachers in these countries will fall on American educators.[15] Archer stated that American education must produce leaders of vision who can recognize and cope with the problems of rural education. This could be the salvation of democracy, since it would involve over a billion and one-half people who lived in rural areas, representing two-thirds of the population of the world.[16]

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[13] Jane Franseth, Rural Education Specialist, United States Office of Education, in a personal conversation with the writer at the Conference on Rural Education of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, in Oklahoma City, October 1-4, 1967. Permission to quote secured.

[14] Department of Rural Education, _1967 Revision of the Platform_ (Washington: National Education Association, October, 1967), p. 2. (Mimeographed)

[15] _Ibid_., pp. 4-5.

The following resolution was passed as the number one joint resolution at the meeting of the Department of Rural Education and the Division of County and Intermediate Unit Superintendents of the National Education Association in October, 1967:

> Adequate staffing of our schools across the nation continues to be one of concern. The Department of Rural Education should continue to direct attention to the encouragement of teacher enlistment and teacher preparation designed to further meet the needs of public education.[17]

Clearly, the suitability of present teacher training programs for prospective rural teachers is being questioned. Teacher training institutions and certification agencies tend to regard the preparation of rural school teachers as no different from that required for other teachers. Individuals who are close to this field of teaching tend to believe that there are important differences between rural and urban teaching.

## Definitions of Terms Used

The following definitions apply throughout this work:

1. Necessary Rural Schools (hereafter simply called rural schools) are those schools which exist in sparsely

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[16] Clifford P. Archer, "Signs of Promise Beyond Our Borders," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXVI (October, 1954), pp. 63-66.

[17] "Joint Resolution Number One" *Meeting of the Department of Rural Education and the Division of County and Intermediate Unit Superintendents*, Oklahoma City (Washington, D. C., National Education Association, October 1-4, 1967).

populated areas and rural communities, usually less than 2500 population. The schools generally enroll less than 75 students per grade.

2. Psychological, or Ego, Needs are the needs for a sense of security and for recognition as a person of worth or importance.[18]
3. Rural Education is education which occurs in a non-urban setting, and is not merely education for rural living. The rural experiences of the students are considered in an educational program to prepare them for living in an increasingly urban and specialized world. It deals with:
    - a. pupil transportation
    - b. rural cultural problems
    - c. limited staff, facilities, and curricula
    - d. isolation from urban centers
    - e. pupil preparation for farm life, rural non-farm life, urban life, or continued education in college.[19]
4. A Rural Community is an area where the population is found in dispersed farmsteads or in centers of 2500 people or less. The cultural opportunities are limited. The inhabitants make their living primarily from such activities as

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[18] Carter V. Good (ed.), Directory of Education, Second Edition (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), p. 362.

[19] ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Definition of Rural Education (Las Cruces, New Mexico: New Mexico State University, 1967).

farming, cattle raising, dairying, mining, forestry occupations, fishing, oil production, railroading, or government installations. The schools have small enrollments, and are limited primarily to academic offerings. They have little chance for expansion or consolidation because of geographical phenomena, a financial inability, or their distance from other areas.[20]

5. A Rural Combined Elementary-Secondary School is a rural school containing twelve or more different grade levels in one building and averaging 75 or less students per grade.
6. A Rural Elementary School is a rural school averaging one or less teachers per grade in the elementary grades.
7. A Rural Secondary School is a rural school having either fewer teachers than course offerings in the high school grades (9-12) or 300 or less students in these grades, or both.
8. A Rural State (in the United States) is a state with a population density of seventy-five persons or less per square mile, except in New England, where it will have fifty persons or less per square mile. It has no more than two Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's), as determined in the most recent United States census of population.

---

20. Harry Potter, Rural Sociologist, Purdue University, in a personal conversation with the writer in El Paso, Texas, on February 28, 1968. Permission to quote secured.

9. A Small School is an educational institution or facility having a limited enrollment. The enrollment requires unique adaptations of instructional methodology and resource use to provide program breadth and quality. The educational program may be for elementary students, for secondary students, or both. It may enroll all the students of a school system or be a separate attendance unit within a larger administrative unit.[21]

10. Social, or Status, Needs describe those relationships that it is essential to establish with other persons in the culture for social belongingness.[22]

11. A Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) is a population unit (established by the Bureau of the Budget in the 1960 Census) in and around a city, forming an integrated economic and social system. It contains a minimum of 50,000 inhabitants. It includes the central physical city, legal city, and entire metropolitan community.[23] It also includes the "Rurban Area," a residential area near an urban area but also in close proximity to a predominantly rural section.[24]

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[21] Ibid.

[22] Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle, Rural Social Systems (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), pp. 699-700.

[23] U. S. Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Population: 1960. Volume I, "Characteristics of the Population," Part I, U. S. Summary, (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964), pp. XXXI-XXXII.

[24] Richard Stevic and George Uhlig, "Occupational Aspirations of Selected Appalachian Youth," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV (January, 1967), 436.

## Assumptions of the Study

For the purposes of this study the following assumptions were made:

1. Teachers currently teaching in rural schools are in a strategic position to assess the problems of adequate preparation for such teaching. Their judgment of what should constitute an adequate program is valuable. No implication is intended, however, that these responses and reactions are the only evidence needed to solve the problem. They simply represent an important and vital source of information.
2. The teachers selected for the study constitute a representative sample of the teaching population of American rural communities.
3. The responses to the questionnaire would indicate teacher perceptions regarding preservice preparation for rural teaching.
4. The responses would be straightforward and honest.
5. The questionnaire designed is both valid and reliable.
6. The questionnaire is inclusive enough in scope to obtain the desired information.

## Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study were the following:

1. Although the sample of the population was 1500 members, it was comparatively small related to the total number of rural

teachers in this country.

2. The study was limited to teachers who were teaching in small rural communities at the time of this study.
3. The accuracy of findings of the study was based in part upon the validity and reliability of the questionnaire developed and in part upon the assumed validity of any data obtained by the questionnaire method. This must assume the honesty and competency of those responding to the questionnaire.
4. The study included no data received after July 6, 1968.
5. By agreement with State Departments of Education and individual teachers involved, no data were presented in a form permitting identification of responses of any individual teacher, school district, or State.
6. In the study, 150 representatives were chosen from each state. This was the physical limit that could be reasonably handled by one person.

## Procedure of the Study

One of the basic assumptions underlying this study was that teachers currently employed in rural schools would be in a strategic position to assess the problems of such teaching. Because of this close contact with the rural school situation, it was felt that their judgment of special material to be included in a preservice program would be valuable, and an examination of their interests and activities might also prove to be useful. To accomplish this, the descriptive approach was chosen.

## Development of the Investigative Instrument

The initial step was the preparation of a suitable instrument to secure the needed data. A suitable and desirable approach seemed to be the questionnaire.

Help in developing the questionnaire was obtained from a panel of seven experts in rural education, all of whom freely offered their services. This panel consisted of the following people:

1. Helen Heffernan, formerly Chief, Bureau of Elementary Education, State of California; now retired;
2. Jane Franseth, Rural Education Specialist, United States Office of Education;
3. Pat Wear, Chairman of the Department of Education, Berea College, and Director, Rural School Improvement Project;
4. Harry Potter, Rural Sociologist, Purdue University;
5. John Turano, Dean, Adams State College;
6. Robert Isenberg, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators; and
7. John Wilcox, Executive Secretary, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association.

Following several revisions of the questionnaire, the panel agreed that it was a valid instrument.[25] After validation, the reliability of the instrument was established by means of a pilot study conducted in New Mexico.

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[25] See Appendix "A" for sample of questionnaire.

## Selection of the Sample

Although the adequate preparation of rural teachers is important in many sections of the nation, specific rural teaching situations and their requirements may differ somewhat in these sections. It was decided, therefore that the purpose of the study could best be served by gathering data from teachers in different sections of the country.

To do this, the United States were divided into eight geographic areas. Ten rural states were chosen from these areas, and approximately 150 teachers were contacted in each of the ten states.

The questionnaires were sent to teachers in one-teacher schools, rural elementary schools, rural secondary schools, and rural combined elementary-secondary schools. Both the teachers and the schools contacted were randomized.

## Collection of Data

A total of 1511 questionnaires were sent out, each accompanied by a letter of explanation and a self-addressed return envelope. Returns came back quite consistently up until the deadline of July 6, 1968. At that time 1148 questionnaires had been returned.

As the questionnaires returned, the data which could be readily used in a computer were coded and entered on IBM Fortran Coding Forms. Ultimately, these data were key punched and analyzed. The other data were tabulated and analyzed by hand.

Checks were made for accuracy of recording at regular intervals.

## Summary

This study was designed to serve several purposes. First, it was designed to determine any specialized preparation which current rural teachers either had received or believed should be available. Second, it was designed to investigate both the extra-curricular and recreational activities of rural teachers, in addition to certain facets of their personal backgrounds. Third, it was designed to determine the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in the small rural school, as perceived by the rural teacher himself.

The instrument for collecting data was a questionnaire, and both its validity and reliability were carefully checked. Data were gathered for several months, through July 6, at which time 75.9 per cent of the 1511 questionnaire recipients had replied.

# CHAPTER II

## REVIEWS OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The rural school today appears to be in trouble. Much of the literature emphasizes that our rural youth are not being given opportunities to acquire competencies either in their rural culture or in an urban culture. The literature further emphasizes that such competencies involve satisfaction of the physical, social, and psychological needs of these youth. It is this satisfaction of needs that is not being achieved in some rural schools today.

There is reason to believe that the causes for lack of competence among rural students are diverse. This statement is borne out by a review of that part of the literature of the past forty years which concentrated on the weaknesses of small rural schools. The subject was handled quite competently by Rufi (1926),[1] Foght (1926),[2] Roemer (1928),[3]

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[1] John Rufi, "The Small High School," Contributions to Education, No. 236 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926), pp. 242-245.

[2] H. W. Foght, "Report of the Committee of One Hundred on Rural Teachers' Problems," Proceedings of the National Education Association (Washington: National Educational Association, 1926), pp. 188-202.

[3] Joseph Roemer, "Curriculum of the Rural High School," Proceedings of the National Education Association (Washington: National Education Association, 1928), pp. 468-471.

Combs (1928),[4] Gaumnitz (1931),[5] (1960),[6] Deyoe (1925),[7] Riddle (1937),[8] Doudna (1947),[9] Morrisett (1950),[10] Dawson (1953),[11] Cyr (1954),[12] De Good (1960),[13] Iwatomo (1963),[14] and Ford, Hite, and Koch (1967).[15]

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4. M. L. Combs, "Comparison of Achievement in City and Rural High Schools," *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (Washington: National Education Association, 1928), pp. 501-504.

5. Walter Herbert Gaumnitz, "Appraising Rural Education's Progress during 1930," *Nation's Schools*, VII (April, 1931), pp. 60-3.

6. Walter Herbert Gaumnitz, "Some Rural School Facts," *School Life*, XLII (March, 1960), pp. 32-5.

7. G. P. Deyoe, "Educating Teachers for Rural High Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXI (May, 1935), pp. 359-68.

8. John Ingle Riddle, "Six Year Rural High School: A Comparative Study of Small and Large Units in Alabama," *Contributions to Education, No. 737* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937), pp. 68-73.

9. Q. V. Doudna, "Complete Rural Education Program," *High School Journal*, XXX (March, 1947), pp. 62-63.

10. Lloyd N. Morrisett, "How Can We Solve the Problems of Administration in the Small High School?" *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, XXXIV (March, 1950), pp. 89-99.

11. Howard Athalone Dawson, "Crucial Issues in Rural Education," *National Education Association Journal*, XLII (October, 1953), pp. 441-42.

12. Frank William Cyr, "Cooperating for Better Rural Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXVI (October, 1954), pp. 44-46.

13. Kenneth C. De Good, "Profile of the Small High School, *Educational Leadership*, XVIII (December, 1960), pp. 170-72.

14. D. Iwatomo, "What About the Small High School?" *Education Digest*, XXIX (December, 1963), pp. 22-24.

15. Paul Ford, Herbert Hite, and Norman Koch, *Remote High Schools: The Realities* (Portland, Oregon: The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1967), pp. 2, 3, 6-25, 39-50.

From two to five of these studies mentioned weaknesses such as social sterility, limited extra-curricular programs, under-financing, shortage of guidance services, and low salaries. Six of the fifteen studies listed weaknesses such as heavy teaching loads and little or no effective supervision of teachers. Seven reported inadequate or inappropriate equipment. Eight indicated inferior building facilities. Thirteen stated that teachers had been inadequately trained, and fourteen reported poor programs or limited offerings.

Since 1957 a considerable amount of work has been done to eliminate the last of these problems. Numerous projects were established to bring educational innovations to the small rural school. As a result, today there are numerous innovative programs available to the rural teacher. The greatest benefit can only be obtained from these programs, however, if the teacher has a sound preparation in both subject matter competency and in instructional skills, in addition to being well trained in personal guidance and the culture of the rural milieu.[16]

Even though these two major needs of rural education are virtually interdependent, in general it seems that only the solution of the need for better programs has been pursued with any success during the past ten years. The solution of the need for adequate teacher preparation has made little progress in the same period, except to be mentioned as an important defect by numerous educators.

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16. Alfred M. Potts, III, Director, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools; New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico, Personal conversations, January 18 and 19, 1967. Permission to quote secured.

The literature to be presented in the remainder of this chapter will be divided into two sections: (1) the history of specialized preservice preparation for rural teachers in the United States, and (2) the necessity, as shown in the literature, for specialized preservice preparation for rural teachers.

## The History of Rural Preservice Preparation

There is a general tendency to divide the history of rural teacher education in the United States into five periods. The first of these extended from 1823 to 1865. A second period, from 1865 to 1900, saw the development of normal schools and teachers colleges. The third period, extending from 1900 to 1935, was the era when rural specialization was begun. This trend in specialization continued until the depression forced a re-examination of many programs. During the fourth period, from 1935 to 1945, economic reasons and the war caused widespread integration of rural teacher preparation with regular programs of teacher preparation. The last period, beginning in 1945, has seen rural teacher-education programs dwindle to virtually nothing.

### The Period from 1823 to 1865

The first program for teacher education in the United States was begun in March, 1823, at Concord, Vermont. Not only was this program started here, but Carney stated that in 1829 the founder of the school, the Reverend Samuel Read Hall, also wrote and published the first book on professional education ever put out in English in the United States. It was entitled Lectures on School Keeping.[17]

Other writers indicated that in 1834 the State of New York approved establishment of teacher-training departments in academies and seminaries,[18] and in 1839 the first normal school was opened in Lexington, Massachusetts, due mainly to the efforts of Horace Mann.[19] During the remainder of the period the number of normal schools gradually increased, until by 1865 there were twenty-one in various parts of the country.[20] None stated that they were dedicated to preparation of rural teachers. This is not too surprising, however, since the complete rurality of the United States at that time would in general imply that the focus of teacher preparation was rural.

## The Period from 1865 to 1900

Although this was a period of rapid growth in teacher education, there seemed to be little attempt to prepare teachers specifically for the problems inherent in rural schools. One possible exception to this was pointed out by Snarr. He discovered that the legislation setting up the normal schools in the Middle Atlantic states either stated directly or implied that one of their functions was to prepare teachers for rural schools.[21]

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[17] Mabel Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," Education of Teachers for Rural America, Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education (Washington: National Education Association of the United States, 1946), p. 15.

[18] Harold W. Foght, The Rural School System of Minnesota, United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1915, No. 20 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1915), p. 8.

[19] Benjamin Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. V, Part I, United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1933, No. 10 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 9.

[20] Carney, op. cit., p. 16.

During this period, a majority of the normal school graduates sought positions in cities and towns rather than in rural areas, for several reasons. Salaries in the rural areas sometimes were no more than twenty-five dollars a month, living conditions were unbelievably bad, and school terms were often no more than three months long.[22] Further, many leaders in normal schools believed a good teacher would teach well in any school and that anyone could teach in a rural school.[23]

There were relatively few well educated teachers in rural areas. Carney stated that by 1906, only three per cent of the rural teachers were normal school graduates. Twenty-two per cent had had some very brief professional background, even if it were only attending one teacher institute. The others had no professional training at all.[24]

During this period, however, rural leaders were not idle. They took strong exception to the idea of no specialized training for rural teachers, and presented the following three definite reasons why special preservice training was necessary:

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[21] Otto W. Snarr, The Education of Teachers in the Middle States (Moorhead, Minnesota: Moorhead State Teachers College, 1946), pp. 121-129.

[22] Carney, op. cit., p. 16.

[23] Mabel Carney, Country Life and the Country School (Chicago: Row, Peterson, and Company, 1912), p. 263.

[24] Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," p. 13.

1. The ungraded school (rural school) presented a unique condition in both administration and teaching;
2. There was a need for the adaptation of subject-matter to the experiences of country children, and
3. The sociological conditions of the country differed from those of the city and therefore demanded special preservice preparation on the part of prospective teachers.[25]

The action of the rural leaders, and their constant pressure on other educators, caused three separate events to take place in the last six years of this period. These included:

1. The appointment of a Committee of Twelve, in 1894, by the National Education Association. This Committee, in its report three years later, recommended reforms in normal schools, the establishment of teacher-training courses in high schools, and the use of rural practice schools;
2. The passing of legislation three years later in Michigan, which required all state normal schools to offer special rural courses;[26] and
3. The formation in Wisconsin, in 1899, of county training schools, later called county rural normal schools. They

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[25] Carney, Country Life and the Country School, pp. 253-254.

[26] Ibid., p. 260.

were the first schools in the country established primarily to give specialized training to rural teachers.[27]

These county training schools were not found in all the states.[28] Carney and Monahan both agreed, however, that for many years they provided the best rural teacher-education in the United States, though their very specialization may have given them a restricted outlook of the field of rural education[29,30]

These schools might have developed into much broader institutions if the township system of school government had not become popular about then.[31] This gave so much power to county clerks that they ended up managing the schools. They hired and supervised teachers. They changed district boundaries. They sold buildings or sites no longer needed. The voters of townships arbitrarily set tax rates for individual properties, and property of the township was also taxed.[32] Patzer stated that this had an inhibiting effect on the development of schools with broad outlooks.[33]

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[27] Arthur C. Monahan, Training Courses for Rural Teachers, United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, No. 2 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1913), p. 36.

[28] Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," p. 17.

[29] Carney, Country Life and the Country School, pp. 256-257.

[30] Monahan, op. cit., p. 37.

[31] Roland A. Koyen, "An Analytical Study of Two Types of School Districts," Doctoral Dissertation (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 1951), pp. 22-24.

[32] Ibid., p. 23.

Frazier reported that at the close of the period there were one hundred and twenty-five schools offering two-year courses in teacher education. There were also two four-year teacher colleges.[34]

## The Period from 1900 to 1935

As the 20th century began, there was considerable unrest in the agricultural population. Out of this unrest grew the Country Life Movement.[35] Formal recognition of the movement was obtained when President Theodore Roosevelt appointed a special Commission on Country Life, which made its first report in 1909. Among other items the report called for the training of rural teachers both in educational and social leadership.[36]

As a response to the report there was a rapid increase in rural teacher-training, particularly in high school normal training departments. When the report was issued, only Maine, Michigan, and Minnesota had such programs. Fourteen years later there were 1,712 high school normal training departments in twenty-three states, and at various times a total of thirty-four states legalized such training.[37]

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[33] Conrad E. Patzer, Public Education in Wisconsin (Madison, Wisconsin: State Department of Public Instruction, 1924), p. 64.

[34] Frazier, op. cit., p. 52.

[35] Evelyn Dewey, New Schools for Old (New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1919), pp. 1-4.

[36] Ellwood P. Cubberly, Rural Life and Education (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1914), p. 170.

Between 1900 and 1912 the colleges also greatly accelerated their programs for the preservice preparation of rural teachers. This activity resulted in the development, in 1902, of the first rural student-teaching program, at the Indiana State Normal School, in Terre Haute.[38]

In 1904 the Western State Normal School, at Kalamazoo, Michigan, established the first Department of Rural Education in the United States, at this level. It included a two-year elementary course for those who had finished eighth grade and an advanced course for those who had finished tenth grade.[39] The program included courses in rural sociology, a country-teacher club,[40] and addresses by rural education experts, the latter taking place at special times called Rural Progress Days.[41]

Other outstanding programs were developed widely across the country, beginning at Western Illinois State Normal School, at Macomb, in 1906.[42] Many of these became excellent schools, but the State Normal School at Normal, Illinois, developed an especially fine Department of Rural Sociology.[43]

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[37] Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," p. 18.

[38] Frazier, op. cit., pp. 81-84.

[39] Harold W. Foght, Efficiency and Preparation of Rural School Teachers, United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1914, No. 49 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1915), p. 41.

[40] Monahan, op. cit., pp. 16-17.

[41] Foght, loc. cit.

A proposal was made by Carney in 1912 for standardizing country school departments in state normal schools.

It included the following items:

1. Normal schools should have departments specializing in country school needs;
2. Useful courses should be offered. These would include nature study, home economics, country school administration, country school methods, and rural sociology;
3. Normal schools should at least have a director of the country school training program, a country school training teacher, and a rural extension worker;
4. Normal schools should provide both one-teacher and consolidated schools as part of their rural programs;
5. They should develop systematic rural extension work,
6. They should have special summer courses for county superintendents;
7. They should develop rural observation schools; and
8. They should sponsor annual school conferences.[44]

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[42] Mabel Carney, "The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools," The Status of Rural Education, Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1931), p. 161.

[43] Carney, Country Life and the Country School, p. 262.

[44] Ibid., pp. 275-280.

Following this, both normal schools and teachers colleges began to offer adequate preservice programs for rural teachers. By 1914, thirty-six per cent had separate Departments of Rural Education, seventeen per cent offered special courses for rural teachers, and twenty per cent offered some rural work apart from the general course.[45]

In 1917 the first national study of rural education was conducted by Ernst Burnham.[46] Included among his findings was the fact that fifty-five per cent of the normal schools and teachers colleges had separate Departments of Rural Education, and virtually all were offering some types of special rural courses. His recommendations varied from the establishment of rural life conferences to public visitation of the rural practice schools.[47]

During the earlier years of the century, two schools of thought developed regarding the proper location for student teaching. Some felt that the natural environment of the rural school was the correct place, while others felt that a model rural school on the campus was ideal.[48] By 1917 there was an almost even split among normal schools and teachers colleges, with half using regular schools for student teaching and half using model schools.[49]

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[45] Foght, op. cit., pp. 33-35.

[46] Ernst Burnham, Rural-Teacher Preparation in the State Normal Schools, United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 27 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918), pp. 12-13.

[47] Ibid., p. 32.

[48] Arthur C. Monahan, The Status of Rural Education in the United States, United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, No. 8 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1913), p. 44.

During the ten years following 1917, however, the question of the better location seemed to have been decided. By 1927, virtually all the normal schools and teachers colleges were using rural schools for practice teaching. It seemed to most educators that the natural environment of the rural school offered a much more realistic approach to the problems the student would face than the model school could hope to offer.[50] The literature also indicated that while rural schools were being widely used for student teaching, the problems of administration and supervision for the programs were very seldom successfully solved.[51]

In 1928 Robinson proposed that students in rural and urban preservice preparation should not be segregated for all their courses. He also indicated, however, that when the emphasis of a course had a direct rural orientation, the work should continue to be differentiated.[52]

Robinson's voice was a very weak one in 1928, because the movement for differentiation of rural instruction reached its zenith between 1926 and 1931.[53] Carney published a set of seven criteria reportedly

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49. Foght, op. cit., p. 43.

50. Monahan, loc. cit.

51. Burnham, op. cit., p. 13.

52. William McKinley Robinson, "The Problem of Differentiating Rural Teacher Preparation--Abstract," National Education Association Addresses and Proceedings, Vol. 66 (Washington: National Education Association, 1928), pp. 484-486.

53. Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," p. 19.

adhered to by normal schools and colleges for specialized rural instruction. They were as follows:

1. The school should enroll a distinctive group of students preparing for rural school service;
2. The school should offer one or more partially differentiated curricula preparing specially for the different phases of rural school work;
3. The school should provide some practice in typical rural schools (both one-teacher and consolidated), under special supervision, for every student majoring in rural education;
4. The school should conduct enough follow-up and extension work to keep in touch with its graduates and to stimulate the general development of rural school and country life improvement throughout its territory;
5. The school should employ at least two specialists giving full time to rural education courses and activities, one of these to be known preferably as the "Director of Rural Education" and the other as the "Supervisor of Rural Practice." In addition to these, rural critic teachers should be employed;
6. The Department of Rural Education in each school should have its headquarters in a special office and should be supplied with enough teaching and extension equipment to insure efficiency;

7. Each Department should possess a specified budget or some other more general assignment of funds large enough to meet the demands of the several activities named above.[54]

This was the status of rural education as the United States moved into the depression years. The effect on rural education was to be disastrous. Salaries of teachers, which had risen to an average of seven hundred and eighty-eight dollars per year, were reduced.[55] Security and tenure were threatened. Many students who could not afford to continue their education dropped out of school, to be employed at very low salaries in rural schools.[56]

Between 1930 and 1933 most rural education courses in normal schools and teachers colleges were either curtailed or integrated with other courses into the general curriculum. By the end of 1933 the number of such schools maintaining Departments of Rural Education was reduced by almost fifty per cent.[57]

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[54] Mabel Carney, "The Preparation of Teachers for Small Rural Schools," National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. V, Part VII, United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1933, No. 10 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933), pp. 359-360.

[55] Walter H. Gaumnitz, Status of Teachers and Principals Employed in Rural Schools of the United States, United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 3 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932), p. 50.

[56] Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," p. 22.

[57] Carney, "The Preparation of Teachers for Small Rural Schools," pp. 360-361.

## The Period from 1935 to 1945

As the depression wore on, the specialized curriculum for prospective rural teachers gradually disappeared.[58] The new plans at first took one of three forms: (a) complete integration of the rural program into the general course, a plan originated at Buffalo, New York, State Teachers College;[59] (b) a continuation of rural specialization, but with more general courses included; or (c) a combination of integration and differentiation. The latter plan was widely adopted in the midwest, and gradually most other schools moved in that direction.[60]

In the meantime, a gradual surplus of teachers was building up. There is a general tendency to state that this was due to three things: (a) the depression-caused stability in the teacher population; (b) other jobs being closed up; and (c) new teachers being graduated and funneled into the tight market each year. A sudden and marked change was about to take place, however, due to the advent of World War II.

Almost overnight the war demands caused the teacher surplus to become a teacher shortage, at all levels. Especially hard hit were the rural areas, which could not compete financially with urban school systems. Their only possible help was to issue emergency certificates.

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[58] Ibid., p. 363.

[59] Kate V. Wofford, "Education for Teachers in the Rural Environment," Teachers College Record, XLI (January 1940), pp. 110-118.

[60] Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," pp. 24-25.

The shortage rapidly became a national emergency of such proportions, however, that by the middle of the war years, over sixty-thousand emergency certificates had been issued.[61]

To help alleviate this situation, emergency programs were developed. These included such suggestions as the extension of off-campus service to rural communities, financial aid for prospective teachers, in-service training programs for rural teachers, and improvement of teacher recruitment and guidance services.[62]

### The Period from 1945 to the Present

In spite of the emergency programs, the shortage of teachers increased. By the time the war ended, there were well over seventy thousand teachers in the United States, mostly in rural areas, teaching on emergency certificates.[63]

Not only did the teacher shortage have a bad effect on the students involved, but it was a prime factor in the decrease of the number of one-teacher schools from over 140,000 prior to the war to somewhat less than 75,000 by 1948. Ten years later the number had decreased to 25,979.[64] One serious effect of this rapid decrease was that many educators believed the one-teacher school was on the way out and that redistricting, which had become popular, would completely eliminate the rural school. They believed there would be no need to prepare teachers for rural schools any more.[65]

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[61] Howard A. Dawson, "Supplying Rural Teachers in the War Emergency," Rural Schools and the War, Yearbook of the Department of *Rural Schools and the War*, Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association (Washington: National Education Association, 1944), p. 73.

[62] *Ibid*., p. 79.

[63] Carney, "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States--A Backward Look," p. 26.

[64] M.C.S. Nobel, Jr. and Howard A. Dawson. *Handbook on Rural Education* (Washington: National Education Association, 1961), p. 64.

Many of this group did not understand that the one-teacher rural school was not THE rural school, nor that redistricting would not eliminate either all the one-teacher schools or the rural school itself. The numbers decreased, but even at the end of the 1965-66 school year Nebraska and South Dakota still had 1413 and 1258 one-teacher schools, respectively.[66] At the end of the 1966-67 school year Kentucky had over 300 necessary one-room schools.[67]

Further, the inability of redistricting to eliminate the small rural school was well emphasized in Nevada. This state was redistricted from hundreds into seventeen districts, but one of them, the Elko District, exceeded in square miles the combined areas of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Delaware and Rhode Island.[68] Many extremely small schools

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65. Research Division, National Education Association, One-Teacher Schools Today, Research Monograph 1960-M1 (Washington: National Education Association, 1960), pp. 4-5.

66. Richard H. Barr and Betty J. Foster, Preliminary Statistics of State School Systems, 1965-66, Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1968), p. 7.

67. Pat Wear, Professor of Education, Berea College, Berea, Kentucky. Telephone Conversation, October 26, 1967. Permission to quote secured.

68. Ralph G. Bohrson and Elbie L. Gann, Programs for Those Rural Schools Which are Necessarily Existent (Washington: National Committee for Children and Youth, September, 1963), p. 9.

were closed in this redistricting. Final reorganization simply formed other schools, which while larger were still well within the defined size of the small rural school. It became a foregone conclusion that Nevada, even with her extensive redistricting and reorganization, would have small rural schools for many years. In general, it seemed that the state would need many teachers well trained to work in rural areas. This situation was also true in many other states.

Although one-teacher and other small rural schools were not completely eliminated by redistricting, they did have difficult times as the forties rolled on into the fifties. In these years the main requirement to teach in rural schools was simply to be certified, _if possible_. Finally, to help themselves, many rural schools set up in-service programs.[69] They hoped to provide at least the essentials of rural background with which the teacher had not previously been provided. A recent study by O'Hanlon stated, however, that a survey of 155 Nebraska schools seriously questioned the adequacy of in-service education programs provided by small rural schools.[70]

Although Departments of Rural Education in virtually all the schools of higher education have disappeared, a few still offer courses that are of special value to the prospective rural teacher. These schools include Western Michigan University, Berea College, the University of Wisconsin, the University of North Dakota, the College of West

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[69] Dawson, _loc_. _cit_.

[70] James O'Hanlon, _In-Service Education in Small Schools_ (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska, 1967), pp. 1-2.

Georgia at Carollton,[71] and the University of Alaska.[72]

The separate-purpose teachers colleges seem to have made their great contributions and are becoming part of the mainstream of education.[73]

Typically, the teacher education institutions provide programs that bear remarkable resemblances to one another. There is some kind of student teaching experience, and usually there are other field experiences preceding it. There are various methods courses--some general and some specific to subject-matter fields. And there are what Conant calls the eclectic courses--those attempting to inform the prospective teacher about education and its sociology, history, philosophy, and psychology.[74] Variation among institutions consists more in the amount and timing of these various elements than in their replacement with other services.[75]

It might be said that the universities have left it to the teachers colleges, while the teachers colleges have now begun to model themselves on the universities and seek the "respectability" of not being colleges for teachers. They have given up the idea of teaching as a vocation in favor of the idea of the teacher as a man who has met university requirements.[76]

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[71] Jane Franseth, Rural Education Specialist; U. S. Office of Education, Washington, Personal conversations, October 3 and 6, 1967. Permission to quote secured.

[72] Alton J. Childers (Director), University of Alaska, Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program, Handbook (College, Alaska; Alaska Rural School Project, 1967), p. 6.

[73] William C. Gaige, "How Much Time is Left for the Teachers College?" Maine Teacher, LI (March, 1962), p. 23.

[74] James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), p. 126.

[75] Clifford F. S. Bebell, "The Educational Program," from Emerging Designs for Education (Denver, Colorado: The Eight State Project, 1968), p. 41.

## The Necessity for Specialized Rural-Teacher Preservice Preparation

The previous section of this paper presented several instances indicating that in the past there was a distinct differentiation between preparation of teachers for rural or urban schools. No matter what direction the preparation took, however, it attempted to prepare the teacher to satisfy adequately the aforementioned physical, social, and psychological needs of the youth involved. This did not seem to imply a wide difference in preparation, because the needs of rural and urban youth do not differ very much.[77] The problem arose, though, because the means of satisfying these needs differed quite widely for rural and urban youth.[78] Today it is still this means of satisfying the needs of rural youth for which a rural teacher must be prepared.

In the introduction to Borg's publication,[79] Bohrson wrote that there was little understanding regarding the different skills which teachers in rural schools uniquely required. Further, the process of preparing teachers to provide for individual instruction had to take cognizance of the rural environment, philosophy, and human expectations. Such preparation, he stated, would produce more, long tenure, effective rural teachers.[80]

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[76] Harold Taylor, "The Need for Radical Reform," Saturday Review, XLVIII (November 20, 1965), p. 76.

[77] Robert M. Isenberg, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators, in a personal conservation with the writer at the Conference on Rural Education of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, in Oklahoma City, October 1-4, 1967. Permission to quote secured.

[78] Ibid.

[79] Walter R. Borg, Perceptions of the Teacher's Role in the Small Rural School (Denver, Colorado: The Western States Small Schools Project, August, 1965).

In the same publication, Borg showed that both elementary and secondary teachers in rural schools had expressed a need at the undergraduate level for methods courses applicable to the rural school situation. There appeared to be little correlation between what was taught in these courses and the situations the teacher faced in these schools.[81]

A different study was made by Van Dyke and Hoyt of 768 rural school dropouts. It showed that, in all but 14 of the cases, either the teacher or the school program had been unable to prepare students either for an occupation or college entrance. Such inability had operated as one of the major forces causing the dropouts.[82] This would seem to be a rather significant happening, especially from the point of view of perceptual psychologists such as Combs and Snygg, who view behavior as based, largely, upon an individual's perception of a situation. The individual's behavior is a result of the stimuli and facts to which he

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80. Ralph G. Bohrson, "Introduction," Perceptions of the Teacher's Role in the Small Rural School, Walter R. Borg (Denver, Colorado: The Western States Small School Project, August, 1965), pp. v-vi.

81. Borg, op. cit., p. 3.

82. L. A. Van Dyke and K. B. Hoyt, The Dropout Problem in Iowa High Schools (Des Moines, Iowa: Research and Publications, Department of Public Instruction, 1958).

is exposed, and, more important, of the interpretations and meanings that exist for him--his perceptions.[83] In this instance it is quite possible that most of the schools involved actually offered adequate programs, as reflected by appropriate criteria used in determining equal educational opportunities. The behavior of the dropouts, however, was not based upon facts or conditions, but upon the interpretation of the facts and conditions.[84]

This is where adequate preservice preparation enters the picture. Davidson and Long said that a teacher must be aware of the perceptions of the rural community and the attitudes caused by the interaction of the rural community and the rural school. If he is not aware, he will not be able to provide learning experiences which will be perceived by the rural student in the same way they appear to the teacher presenting them.[85]

Others also subscribe to the point of view that the rural teacher needs special preservice preparation. Bohrson and Gann stated that one of the main problems of rural schools was the lack of availability and retention of good teachers. Further, a good part of the reason for this was because teachers were not prepared for the personal and professional responsibilities expected of them in a rural community.[86]

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[83] 83. A. W. Combs and D. Snygg, Individual Behavior (New York: Harper Brothers, 1959).

[84] 84. James Anderson, The Influence of Differential Community Perceptions on the Provision of Equal Educational Opportunities (Las Cruces, New Mexico: New Mexico State University, 1967), p. 2.

[85] 85. Helen H. Davidson and Gerhard Long, "Children's Perception of Their Teachers' Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement and Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIX (December, 1960), pp. 107-118.

The report of the Rural School Improvement Project in Kentucky, pointed out that many rural teachers had been so haphazardly informed about rural areas that they had marred young lives by poor methods or lack of concern about the rural dweller.[87] It further stated that because the public school was the social agency found in every rural community, teachers for rural schools needed to be prepared for broad community participation.[88] In many places, however, mediocre and poorly prepared teachers had been so chronically in the schools, there was almost no public awareness of any better possibility. Thus the agency which should have been performing the greatest service was unable to meet even the normal demands upon it.[89]

Other results of this project showed that many rural teachers had had no training in curriculum principles. They had no ideas about using the many teaching aids found in nature. They had virtually no conception of rural culture. They had had no training in establishing sanitary conditions in a rural school. They had had no background in the recognition of health problems. They knew practically nothing about the use of county libraries, bookmobiles, or college extension libraries. They had had little training in recreation. They had little or no idea of planning for and with a community. They had had no practical training in guidance of rural students, in keeping cumulative records, or in mental health procedures.[90]

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[86] Ralph G. Bohrson and Elbie L. Gann, Programs for Those Rural Schools Which are Necessarily Existent (Washington: National Committee for Children and Youth, September 1963), pp. 12.

[87] Roscoe V. Buckland (Ed.), Rural School Improvement Project, Report 1953-57 (Berea, Kentucky: Berea College, 1958), p. 3.

[88] Ibid., p. 17.

[89] Ibid., p. 86.

Similarly, a report by the Rocky Mountain Area Project for Small High Schools emphasized that one of the big problems of rural schools was hiring teachers who were well prepared. Few teachers had apparently been told of the problems in a rural situation, let alone how to approach these problems. They were unable to adjust any training they had had in counseling to the problems of counseling rural students. They understood very little about school-community relations in a rural community.[91]

The problem was further emphasized by Harper, who wrote that securing properly trained personnel for the small school was a real problem. Few prospective teachers were aware of how to conduct adequate educational or vocational guidance for rural students. Few were prepared to adapt method and content to irregular, isolated, part-time students as well as normal full-time students. Few knew how to prepare health, physical education, recreation, or extracurricular programs for rural students. Few knew how to secure and develop a program of cooperative education in a small rural community.[92]

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[90] Ibid., pp. 42-47.

[91] Ward Beal, Colorado Accepts the Challenge (Denver: Colorado State Department of Education, 1961), pp. 2-3.

Ford indicated that many rural teachers did not provide proper direction for their students. Few seemed to have enough initiative to take advantage of the flexibility provided by small classes to introduce innovative methodology. Both of these faults were probably because the teachers were inadequately prepared. Further, most rural schools did not employ guidance counsellors. Thus counseling was not carried on sequentially and logically, but rather in a hit or miss fashion. This resulted in most students not having access to the basic occupational and educational information to which they were entitled. This was also stated to be the result of a lack of adequate preparation.[93]

Other difficulties, noted by several writers, included the very critical problem of providing teachers who had developed an understanding of and sensitivity to the unique problems and responsibilities of teaching in villages and isolated rural schools.[94]

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92. Aaron W. Harper, "Improving Small Schools" The Research Record, IX (Missoula, Montana: Montana State University, School of Education, March-April, 1963), pp. 3-5.

93. Paul Ford, "Small High Schools: Myth, Reality, Potential," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LI (March, 1967), pp. 89-93.

94. George E. Haney, "Problems and Trends in Migrant Education," reprinted from School Life (July, 1963), OE-20057, pp. 2-3. Robert M. Isenberg, "Are Rural Youth Getting an Equal Break Academically," Special Focus on Rural Youth (Stillwater, Oklahoma: National Conference on Problems of Youth in a Changing Environment, September 22-25, 1963) pp. 146-147. Bernard M. Shiffman, Adjustment of Rural Youth to Urban Environments, (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 12-17. T. M. Stinnett, Present Status of Personnel Needed, An Address by the Executive Secretary of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National

There is, then, a general kind of agreement among those most interested in rural education that the rural teacher is not only poorly prepared, but also that the areas of poor preparation run the full range of teacher preparation.

Other authorities felt there were particular areas in which rural teachers should have specialized preparation, in addition to the general rural preparation. Some proposals provided rural teachers with a broader training in rural health, sanitation, and nutrition. This was to enable teachers to recognize and provide help with simpler health problems in a community. It was also to prepare them to be able to apply preventive health measures.[95]

Numerous proposals were made to broaden preparation in both guidance of rural students and in the study of mental hygiene. The purposes included the following: (a) earlier recognition of possible

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Education Association, October 4, 1954. Robert S. Fox (Ed.,) Education--A Forward Look, Yearbook 1955, Department of Rural Education (Washington: National Education Association, 1955), p. 93. Sterling M. McMurrin, Some Basic Issues in Teacher Education. Address delivered before the Opening General Session, The Fort Collins Conference, 17th Annual National TEPS Conference, Fort Collins, Colorado, June, 1962. Department of Education, University of Alaska, Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program (College, Alaska: University of Alaska, 1967-68), p. 6.

[95] A. L. Chapman, Planning for Rural Health Services, Special Session on Health Status and Services for Rural Youth (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 1-8. Mary Hill, Nutritional Health of Teenagers, Special Session on Health Status and Services for Rural Youth (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 9-14. Donald M. Logsdon, Comprehensive Health Services for the Rural Poor, Special Session on Health Status and Services for Rural Youth (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 59-63.

delinquency problems; (b) aid in supplying occupational and educational advice; (c) recognition and involvement of teachers in social services of all kinds; (d) formation of ability to coordinate school, churches, court, and community; and (e) development of understanding of and sensitivity to the problems of the rural school community.[96]

Closely related to the necessity for special guidance training, and considered vital by most authors were the related areas of rural sociology and rural culture. A primary reason given for preparation in these areas was to enable the rural teacher to be aware of possible disturbing influences outside the rural school, and to be able to take steps necessary to offset any delinquent tendencies caused by these influences.[97]

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96. Joseph H. Douglass, An Overview of Rural Youth's Mental Health Status and Services, Special Session on Health Status and Services for Rural Youth (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 15-35. National Commission on Community Health Services, Health is a Community Affair (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1966). National Institute of Mental Health, Mental Health in Appalachia, Problems and Prospects in the Central Highlands, U. S. Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1965). U. S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, Rural People in the Economy, Agricultural Economic Report No. 101 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1966). Hans R. Huessy, Rural Mental Health, Special Session on Health Status and Services for Rural Youth (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 64-69. D. E. Lindstrom, "Factors Related to the Education and Job Plans of Rural Youth," Illinois Agricultural Economics, Reprint (January, 1967), pp. 31-36. Walter E. Schafer, Approaches to Juvenile Delinquency Prevention and Treatment in Rural Settings, Special Session on Quality of Living for Rural Youth (Washington: National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, October 23-26, 1967), pp. 11-26.

97. James S. Brown, The Family Group in a Kentucky Mountain Farming Community, Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 588 (Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1952).

Other writers stated that the background provided by the rural family had implications for the adjustment of rural youth both in his rural society and the urban society to which he often migrated. Knowledge of these implications was believed to be important for understanding the rural student.[98] Further, knowledge of rural economic conditions was vital because rural youth were growing up in family environments where income levels were limited and material levels of living were at a lower scale than the average for urban areas.[99]

Ulibarri contended that if the teacher was not aware of the cultural values held by the children and the community, then tension and worry would arise between the teacher on the one hand, and the class and community on the other hand.[100] The addition of these stresses and anxieties could not only cause personality maladjustments, but inefficient functioning in the classroom.[101]

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[98] William H. Key, "Rural-Urban Differences and the Family," Sociological Quarterly, II (January, 1961), pp. 49-56. Marvin B. Sussman and Lee G. Burchinal, "Parental Aid to Married Children: Implications for Family Functioning," Marriage and Family Living, XXIV (November, 1962), pp. 320-332. James H. Copp, Family Backgrounds of Rural Youth (Washington: National Committee for Children and Youth, September, 1963), pp. 2-5.

[99] Willard E. Goslin, Learning to Plow on a City Street, Department of Rural Education (Washington: National Education Association, 1963), pp. 3-6, 9-13.

[100] Horacio Ulibarri, "Teacher Awareness of Sociocultural Differences in Multicultural Classrooms," Sociology and Sociological Research, XLV (October, 1960).

[101] Arturo Pacheco, Anxiety and Reading Achievement in Sixth Grade Children, Doctoral Dissertation (Greeley, Colorado: Colorado State College, 1963).

Opler noted that a basic knowledge of both rural sociology and rural culture was necessary. This would permit the teacher to understand the rural family and social unit and how the traditional systems of regulating behavior, ethics, and attitudes were transmitted through these systems.[102]

Perhaps the teacher education institutions have become aware of the weaknesses in the preparation of rural teachers. If so, little has been done about it. The Encyclopedia of Educational Research published 112 listings under Rural Education, but not one of them pertained to preparation of teachers for rural schools.[103] This was not confined completely to rural schools, as evidenced by Sarason's publication, which made the point that while much had been written about teacher education in general, little had been done in the way of research.[104] Today, the only well-known projects in the preparation of teachers for rural schools are those at the University of Alaska[105] and a very new program being conducted by the Upper Midwest Regional Education Laboratory.[106]

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102. M. D. Opler (Ed.), Culture and Mental Health (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1959).

103. Chester W. Harris (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Third Edition (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), pp. 1166-1178.

104. Seymour B. Sarason and others, The Preparation of Teachers: An Unstudied Problem in Education (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962).

105. Childers, loc. cit.

106. Upper Midwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Continuing Education for Teacher Competence, A Report to the Region (St. Paul, Minnesota: The Laboratory, 1968).

If Fisher was correct when he wrote to the author of this paper, "Your study should be extremely helpful in emphasizing the necessity for special training for those who go into rural schools,"[107] then perhaps this study will provide a little more information to help those who feel that our rural students should have, in the words of Thomas Jefferson--

> . . . An education adapted to the years, the capacity, and the condition of everyone, and directed to their freedom and happiness.

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[107] Roger D. Fisher, Associate Professor, College of Education, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming, in personal correspondence, September 12, 1967.

# CHAPTER III

# INVESTIGATIVE PROCEDURE

The research procedure will be discussed under three headings: (1) Development of the Investigative Instrument; (2) Selection of the Sample; (3) Collecting the Data.

## Development of the Investigative Instrument

Prior to the development of the research instrument, several things became apparent. First, the instrument would need to provide a broad range of information. Second, it had to be uncomplicated and straightforward. Third, it had to be of such nature that a relatively large population in an extended geographical area could be contacted. The questionnaire appeared to satisfy these demands.

In the development of the questionnaire, certain of the items were readily formulated. Those pertaining to specialized preservice programs, however, were difficult to generate. A thorough examination of the literature was conducted to locate recent descriptions of specialized preservice programs for rural teachers. Numerous documents stated that such a preparation was both desirable and necessary. Others emphasized a single area in which preparation was thought to be necessary. No suggestions were made, however, about the content of a preservice preparation for rural teachers.

One hundred and thirty-two current college catalogues were examined to ascertain which of these might offer specialized preservice programs in rural teacher preparation.[1] Again there were none found.

The chief source of assistance was the panel of rural experts. It offered many practical suggestions which were incorporated into the first form of the questionnaire. This was sent to panel members for review, evaluation, and suggestions for elimination or addition of material. After two such revisions, the members felt that the questionnaire was valid.

Following validation of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted to test its reliability. Twenty-five rural teachers in New Mexico received the questionnaire. All had agreed to complete and return it. When this was done, the questionnaires were examined closely to detect any inconsistencies in item interpretations. Since none appeared, the reliability of the instrument appeared to be established.

## Selection of the Sample

To gather data from teachers in different sections of the country, the United States were divided into eight geographic areas. These areas were suggested in Education in the United States.[2] They are presented in Table II.

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[1] See Appendix "B" for the college catalogues examined.

[2] Education in the United States (Washington: National Committee for the Support of Public Schools, 1966), pp. 16-17.

## TABLE II

## GEOGRAPHIC AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES

Region & State

- New England
  - Maine
  - New Hampshire
  - Vermont
  - Massachusetts
  - Rhode Island
  - Connecticut
- Mideast
  - New York
  - New Jersey
  - Pennsylvania
  - Delaware
  - Maryland
  - District of Columbia
- Great Lakes
  - Michigan
  - Ohio
  - Indiana
  - Illinois
  - Wisconsin
- Plains
  - Minnesota
  - Iowa
  - Missouri
  - North Dakota
  - South Dakota
  - Nebraska
  - Kansas
- Southeast
  - Virginia
  - W. Virginia
  - Kentucky
  - Tennessee
  - N. Carolina
  - S. Carolina
  - Georgia
  - Florida
  - Alabama
  - Mississippi
  - Arkansas
  - Louisiana
- Southwest
  - Oklahoma
  - Texas
  - New Mexico
  - Arizona
- Rocky Mountain
  - Montana
  - Idaho
  - Wyoming
  - Colorado
  - Utah
- Far West
  - Washington
  - Oregon
  - Nevada
  - California
  - Alaska
  - Hawaii

Examination of the 1960 edition of the United States Census showed that: (1) sixteen of the forty-eight contiguous states could be classified as rural, according to the definition being used; (2) the Mideast and Great Lakes regions had no rural states; and (3) in the other areas the rural state distribution showed two in New England, four in the Plains region, three in the Southeast, two in the Southwest, three in the Rocky Mountains, and two in the Far West.[3] Professional contacts willing to participate in the study were made in ten of the rural states. This is detailed in Table III.

TABLE III

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STATES AND TYPES OF CONTACTS USED IN THE STUDY

| Region & States Used | Type of Contact | Region & States Used | Type of Contact |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England | | Southwest | |
| Maine | State University | New Mexico | State Department |
| Vermont | State Department | | |
| Plains | | Rocky Mountain | |
| Minnesota | Educator | Montana | State Department |
| South Dakota | State Department | Wyoming | State Department |
| Southeast | | Far West | |
| Kentucky | Private College | Nevada | State Department |
| Arkansas | State Department | | |

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[3] U. S. Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Population: 1960. Volume I, "Characteristics of the Population." Part I, United States Summary (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1964), p. S27.

The initial mailing of questionnaires was to one-teacher schools. Examination showed that the number of such schools in the states chosen varied from sixteen in New Mexico to 1258 in South Dakota.[4] On this basis, questionnaires were sent to one-teacher schools in proportion to the number in New Mexico. Since this procedure would allot only one or two questionnaires to four states, these states were each sent five questionnaires for one-teacher schools. The other states retained the numbers allotted to them on the basis of the proportionate sampling.

The remainder of the questionnaires were divided approximately evenly among rural elementary schools, rural secondary schools, and rural combined elementary-secondary schools. None of the elementary or secondary schools received more than three questionnaires. Since there were far fewer of the combined schools and they had larger faculties, only the first three schools on the list each received three questionnaires. The next six, if there were that many, each received six questionnaires. These schools were all chosen randomly, in alphabetical order, from the lists supplied by the professional contacts in the states. The final distribution of questionnaires is shown in Table IV.

Individual questionnaire recipients were randomized alphabetically by threes in the elementary and the secondary schools. Further they alternated between the first three names and the last three names, from school to school.

In the combined elementary-secondary schools the names were chosen the same way. In some cases, however, there were six consecutive names chosen instead of three.

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[4] 4. See Table I, p. 5, Chapter I.

## TABLE IV

## DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

| State | One Room Schools | | Elementary Schools | | Secondary Schools | | El. Sec. Combined | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number Schools | Question-naires Sent Out | Number Sent to Number of Schools | Total | Number Sent to Number of Schools | Total | Number Sent to Number of Schools | Total |
| South Dakota | 1258 | 72 | 3 to 5<br>2 to 6 | 27 | 3 to 9 | 27 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 3 | 27 |
| Minnesota | 737 | 46 | 3 to 8<br>2 to 6 | 36 | 3 to 12 | 36 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 4 | 33 |
| Montana | 475 | 30 | 3 to 8<br>2 to 9 | 42 | 3 to 14 | 42 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 4 | 33 |
| Kentucky | 422 | 27 | 3 to 10<br>2 to 6 | 42 | 3 to 14 | 42 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 5 | 39 |
| Wyoming | 121 | 8 | 3 to 10<br>2 to 9 | 48 | 3 to 16 | 48 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 6 | 45 |
| Maine | 96 | 6 | 3 to 13<br>2 to 6 | 51 | 3 to 17 | 51 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 6 | 45 |
| Vermont | 28 | 5 | 3 to 13<br>2 to 6 | 51 | 3 to 17 | 51 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 6 | 45 |
| Arkansas | 25 | 5 | 3 to 15<br>2 to 3 | 51 | 3 to 17 | 51 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 6 | 45 |
| Nevada | 20 | 5 | 3 to 11<br>2 to 9 | 51 | 3 to 17 | 51 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 6 | 45 |
| New Mexico | 16 | 5 | 3 to 13<br>2 to 6 | 51 | 3 to 17 | 51 | 3 to 3<br>6 to 6 | 45 |
| TOTALS | | 209 | | 450 | | 450 | | 402 |

After the schools and participants were selected, details of the study were presented to the chief administrators of the schools. Some were contacted directly by the State Departments of Education in the participating states, while others were contacted by the writer.[5] With no exceptions, administrators contacted agreed with the value and importance of the study and agreed to have their schools participate.

## Collecting of Data

When all administrative arrangements had been made, a general form letter describing the study was constructed to be sent to all the teachers involved. This was typed on a Flexowriter, Model 2201, which actually types each letter separately. It allows for individual identification of the addressee, plus any personal data which may be necessary. Thus, while time is saved by the form letter, it is impossible for the recipient to tell it from a personal letter.[6]

A total of 1511 letters, each with a questionnaire and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope were disseminated to the teachers. No follow-up letters seemed to be necessary, since the returns came in at a fairly steady rate. It seemed expedient to cut off the inflow of data on July 6, 1968. At that time returns had been received from 1148 teachers, or 75.9 per cent of those contacted.

As the questionnaires returned, each was logged in on index cards. The replies to the last two questions, in which an opportunity was provided for the recipients to state the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in rural schools, were tabulated. Several other questions which did not lend themselves to computer use were also tabulated by hand. The remainder of the replies were coded and placed on IBM Fortran Coding Forms, Form X28-7327-5, on which twelve questionnaires could be coded. The data were key punched and analyzed by an International Business Machines Computer, Model 1130.

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[5] See Appendix "C" for samples of letters.

[6] Ibid.

By way of checking, twelve questionnaires out of the first hundred were tabulated both by hand and by a separate computer run. After the first check, when a number of flaws were discovered in the program, no more discrepancies were noted.

# CHAPTER IV

## PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

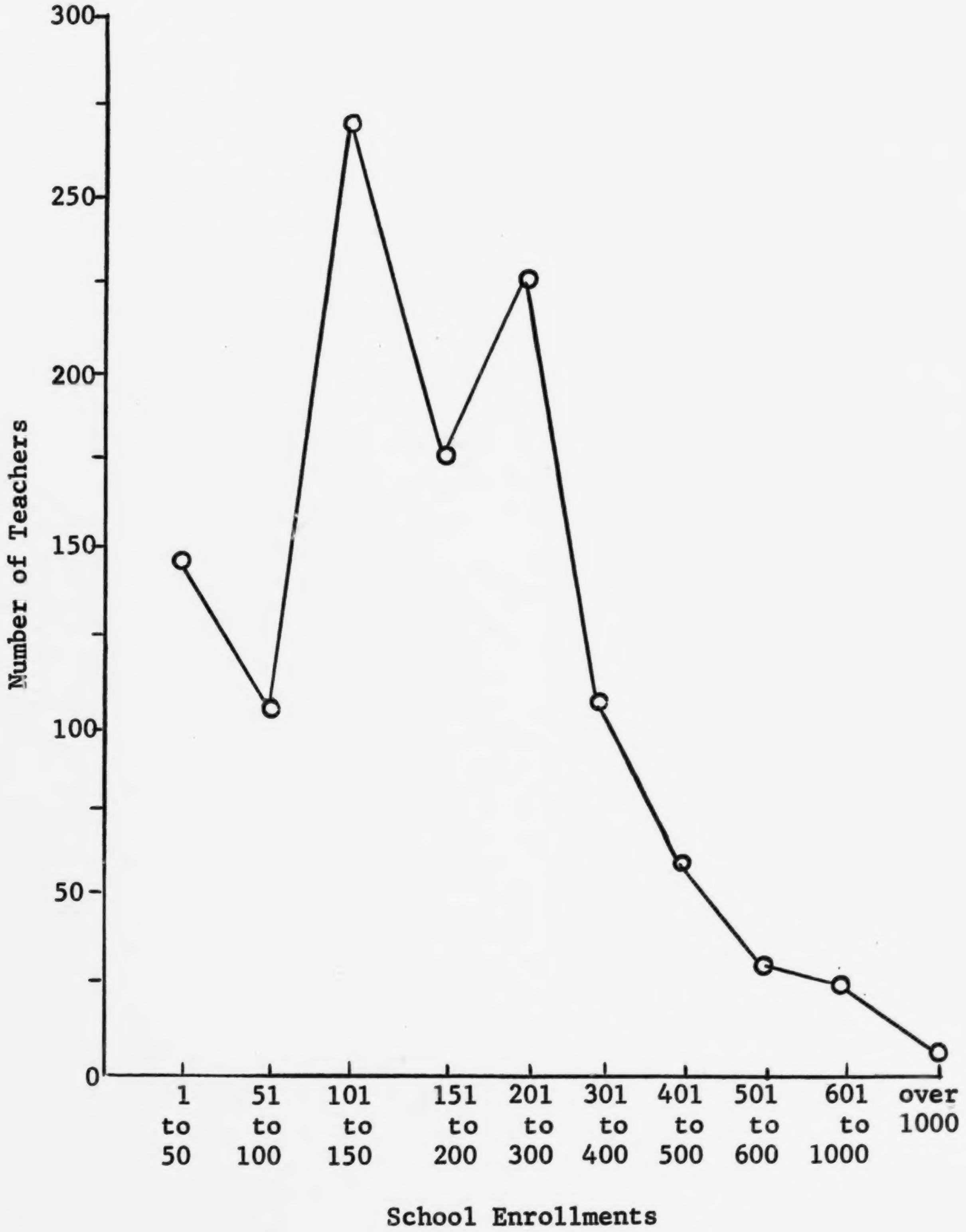
The results of the descriptive analyses of the questionnaires appear in this chapter. Since the central focus of the study was to determine what had been the preservice preparation of teachers for rural schools, the completed evaluation and analysis revealed some useful information about this topic. Further, it revealed additional information both about the communities and the interests of the teachers who took part in the study.

Out of the 1148 questionnaires returned, four were discarded because they were either incomplete or had been answered by a person who did not care to participate in the study. Another twenty-four were discarded because the communities did not fall under the definition of a rural community. The remaining 1120 questionnaires were used in the study.

The data are presented in seven sections. These include one section on the demographic features of the schools and teachers sampled. The other six sections present data which answer the established purposes of the study.

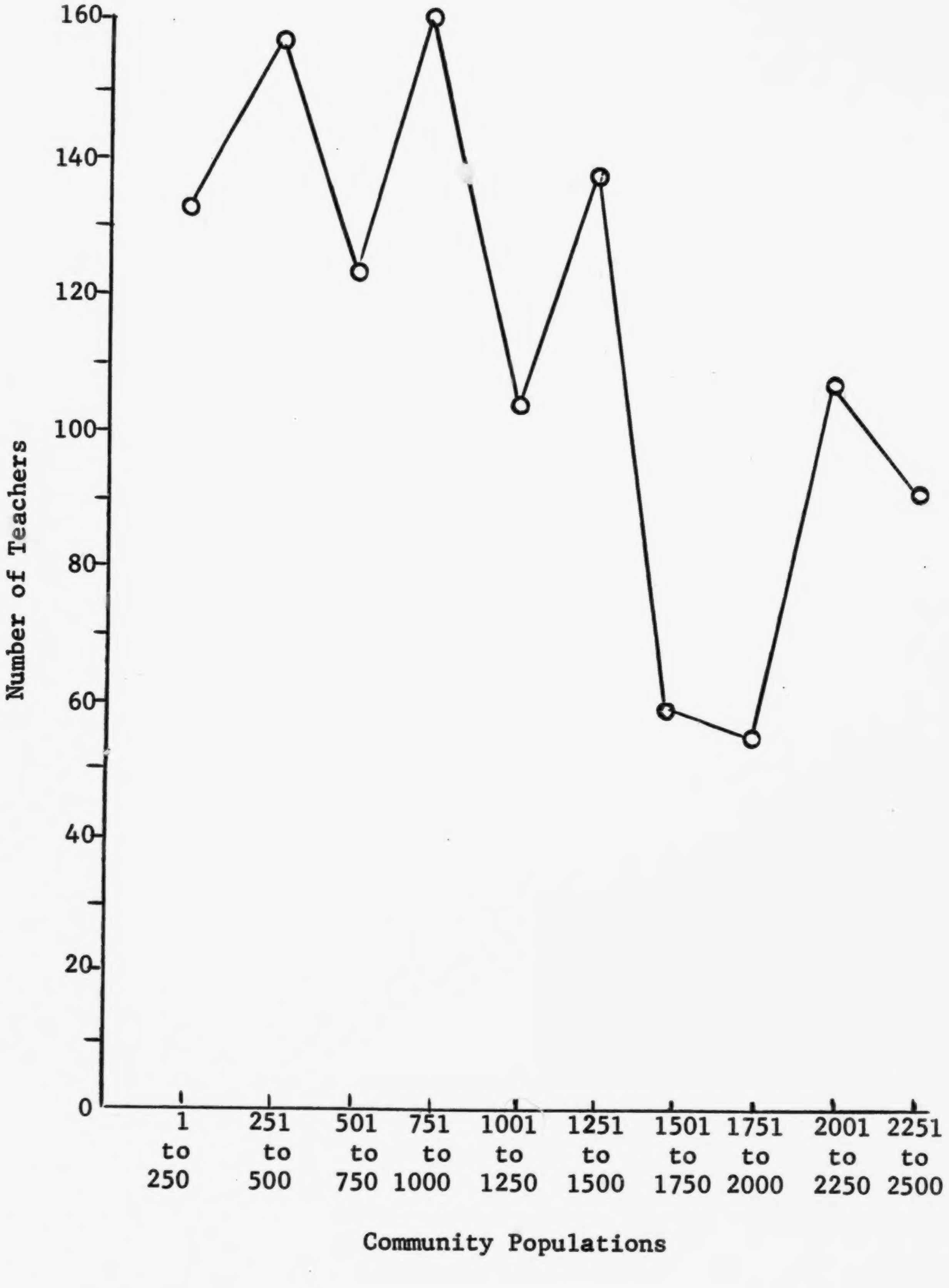
### Demographic Data

The distribution of the teachers sampled in the study is compared both to school size and community size, in Figures 1 and 2.



Distribution of Teachers Sampled by School Size

Figure 1



Distribution of Teachers Sampled by Size of Community Where Employed

Figure 2

Since the geographical characteristics of the areas sampled were so diverse, it was expected that the chief sources of income for the communities sampled might also vary considerably. The study verified this expectation. Table V shows the chief sources of income for residents of the areas sampled, as reported by the teachers working in those areas.

TABLE V

CHIEF SOURCES OF INCOME FOR
RESIDENTS OF AREAS SAMPLED

| Source of Income | Number of Teachers Reporting Source | Percentage of Total Teacher Reporting Source* |
|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 718 | 64.0 |
| Government | 47 | 4.2 |
| Fishing | 137 | 12.1 |
| Ranching | 402 | 36.0 |
| Mfg. and Mills | 177 | 15.8 |
| Tourists | 44 | 3.9 |
| Mining | 282 | 25.4 |
| Welfare | 108 | 9.7 |
| Lumbering | 260 | 23.2 |
| Oil | 52 | 4.6 |
| Railroad | 51 | 4.6 |
| Other | 34 | 3.0 |

* Does not total 100 per cent as more than one response came from many teachers.

Not surprisingly, the greatest percentage of teachers noted agriculture as the chief source of income. The influence of the western states is shown by the per cent who indicated ranching as another chief source of income. Tourism, while not a main income source in many communities, was reported to be very important in a small percentage of cases. One teacher wrote that tourism in her community exposed the youngsters to cultural influences that they would probably never meet otherwise. Further, she continued, it enabled many youngsters to run their own small businesses during the tourist season. It also gave those who served as guides an invaluable experience in meeting, handling, and speaking with people.

A rather disturbing figure was uncovered when almost ten per cent of the teachers indicated welfare as one of the main sources of income in their community. This fact should not be too surprising, because it is general knowledge that many rural areas are characterized by low per capita wealth.[1] It does, however, emphasize the fact that the education of many rural youths is handicapped by a lack of adequate finances.

The teachers reporting the data were divided quite evenly between the two sexes, shown in Table VI.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS IN THE STUDY

| Sex | Number of Each Sex | Per Cent of Each Sex |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 501 | 44.7 |
| Female | 619 | 55.3 |

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[1] Roscoe V. Buckland (Ed.), Rural School Improvement Project, Report 1953-57 (Berea, Kentucky: Berea College, 1958), p. 11.

The total years of teaching experience were well distributed from one year through forty-nine years. As might be expected, the lower number of years of experience included a larger per cent of the teachers. It was interesting to note, however, that there was no heavy clustering of teachers at any one specific experience level. This is demonstrated by Table VII.

TABLE VII

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE
INDICATED BY TEACHERS SAMPLED

| Years of Experience | Number of Teachers Indicating This Number | Per Cent of Total Teachers Indicating This Number | Years of Experience | Number of Teachers Indicating This Number | Per Cent of Total Teachers Indicating This Number |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 83 | 7.4 | 26 | 9 | .8 |
| 2 | 91 | 8.1 | 27 | 15 | 1.3 |
| 3 | 69 | 6.2 | 28 | 16 | 1.4 |
| 4 | 65 | 5.8 | 29 | 13 | 1.2 |
| 5 | 55 | 4.9 | 30 | 12 | 1.1 |
| 6 | 55 | 4.9 | 31 | 15 | 1.3 |
| 7 | 32 | 2.9 | 32 | 6 | .5 |
| 8 | 59 | 5.3 | 33 | 9 | .8 |
| 9 | 42 | 3.8 | 34 | 13 | 1.2 |
| 10 | 42 | 3.8 | 35 | 9 | .8 |
| 11 | 35 | 3.1 | 36 | 4 | .4 |
| 12 | 23 | 2.1 | 37 | 5 | .4 |
| 13 | 33 | 2.9 | 38 | 9 | .8 |
| 14 | 22 | 2.0 | 39 | 9 | .8 |
| 15 | 42 | 3.8 | 40 | 8 | .7 |
| 16 | 21 | 1.9 | 41 | 6 | .5 |
| 17 | 23 | 2.1 | 42 | 6 | .5 |
| 18 | 24 | 2.1 | 43 | 2 | .2 |
| 19 | 19 | 1.7 | 44 | 3 | .3 |
| 20 | 20 | 1.8 | 45 | 2 | .2 |
| 21 | 17 | 1.5 | 46 | 1 | .1 |
| 22 | 19 | 1.7 | 47 | 1 | .1 |
| 23 | 15 | 1.3 | 48 | 3 | .3 |
| 24 | 18 | 1.6 | 49 | 1 | .1 |
| 25 | 19 | 1.7 | | | |

The elementary teachers in the study outnumbered both the secondary teachers and those teachers who taught elementary-secondary combinations. These figures are shown in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

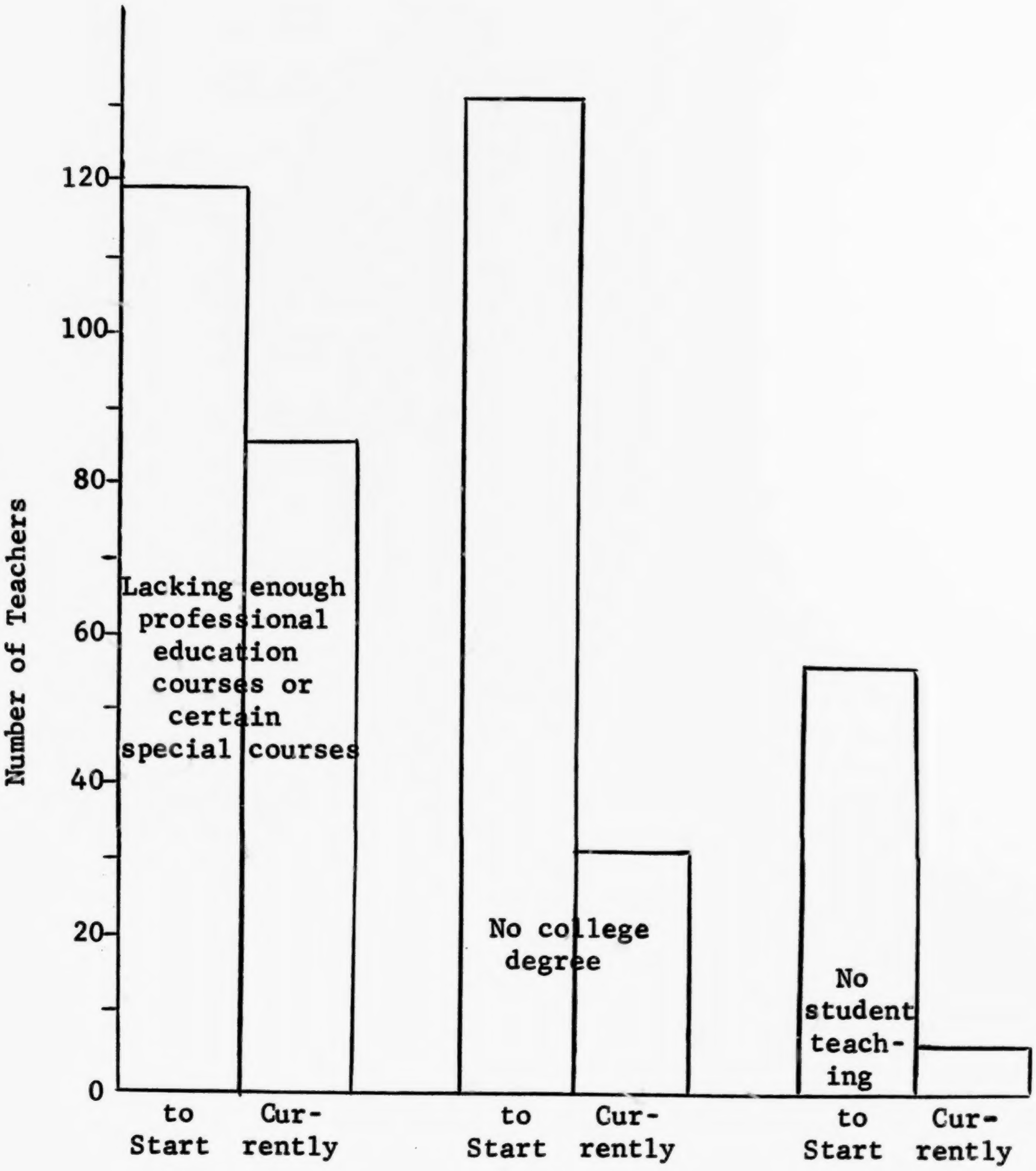
NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY (K-8), SECONDARY (9-12), AND COMBINED ELEMENTARY-SECONDARY TEACHERS IN THE GROUP SAMPLED

| Grades Taught | Per Cent of Total Teachers at This Level |
|---|---|
| Elementary only | 51.6 |
| Secondary only | 28.1 |
| Both | 20.3 |

In addition to the data of Table VIII, a comparatively small number of teachers reported teaching experience sometime in their careers in larger communities. A total of 227 teachers reported some experience in communities of 2500 to 25,000 population. One hundred and two also reported brief experience in communities of over 25,000 population.

About one-third of the teachers indicated that they were not certified when they began to teach in rural schools (See Table IX). Although the questionnaire did not ask why this situation existed, 301 of the non-certified teachers indicated some reasons, as shown in Figure 3.

The data of Table IX also show that almost twelve per cent of the teachers currently in rural schools are not certified. One hundred and



Reasons for Lack of Certification

Figure 3

twenty-two of these teachers indicated reason. They are also presented in Figure 3.

TABLE IX

NUMBER OF TEACHERS CERTIFIED AND NOT CERTIFIED
BEFORE BEGINNING TO TEACH IN RURAL
SCHOOLS AND CURRENTLY

| Certification Status | N | % |
|---|---|---|
| Certified prior to teaching | 767 | 68.4 |
| Not certified at that time | 353 | 31.6 |
| Currently certified | 986 | 88.1 |
| Not currently certified | 134 | 11.9 |

The data of Table IX show that the number of non-certified teachers in the sampled group decreased by approximately sixty-two per cent since the group began teaching.

Further information about the group of sampled teachers was obtained by inquiries about their marital status. This also led to information about whether or not the spouse worked, and, if so, at what profession.

The results of these questions are presented in Table X. These data show that almost twenty per cent of the teachers were single. This group was composed of fifty men and 171 women. Another twenty per cent were married to teachers. This was reported by 132 men and eighty-nine women. The only other large group was composed of those whose spouses did not work. This status was reported by 245 men and forty-three women.

All of the latter reported that their husbands were physically unable to work.

TABLE X

OCCUPATION OF SPOUSES OF TEACHERS SAMPLED

| Occupation | Per Cent of Total Group |
|---|---|
| Teacher | 19.8 |
| Miner | 4.6 |
| Farmer | 6.4 |
| Rancher | 4.4 |
| Merchant | 2.1 |
| Small Business | 6.4 |
| Gov't. Employee | 4.2 |
| Salesman | 1.1 |
| Student | 1.2 |
| Nurse, etc. | 1.2 |
| Minister, Religious Work, etc. | 1.0 |
| Other | 2.1 |
| Does not work | 25.7 |
| Single | 19.8 |

One man reported that his wife was a merchant; she made about four times as much as he did and had about half as much education.

Further questions pertaining to the backgrounds of the teachers indicated that 75.6 per cent of the sample had had either no student teaching or none in rural schools. An overwhelming number (83.1 per cent) indicated the belief, however, that prospective rural teachers should do all or part of their teaching in rural schools. These data are presented in Tables XI and XII.

TABLE XI

TYPES OF STUDENT TEACHING IN WHICH TEACHERS SAMPLED HAD PARTICIPATED

| Type of student teaching | Number of Teachers Reporting | Per Cent of Total Group |
|---|---|---|
| All in rural schools | 185 | 16.6 |
| Part in rural schools | 87 | 7.8 |
| None in rural schools | 793 | 70.7 |
| No student teaching | 55 | 4.9 |

Although everyone was asked to indicate his opinion of the optimum length of time for student teaching, only a small percentage replied. The replies varied from one semester to three semesters.

TABLE XII

TYPE OF STUDENT TEACHING IN WHICH TEACHERS SAMPLED BELIEVED PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS SHOULD PARTICIPATE

| Type of Student Teaching | Number of Teachers Reporting | Per Cent of Total Group |
|---|---|---|
| All in rural schools | 801 | 71.5 |
| Part in rural schools | 129 | 11.6 |
| None in rural schools | 189 | 16.8 |
| No student teaching | 1 | .1 |

## What Per Cent of Rural Teachers Come from Rural Communities?

One of the purposes of the investigation was to determine what per cent of the teachers sampled came from rural communities. As a corollary to this, information was also requested regarding the size of the high school attended by each teacher. The results of these questions are found in Tables XIII and XIV.

TABLE XIII

TYPE OF HOME COMMUNITY

| Type of Community | Number of Teachers Reporting | Per Cent of Total Teachers |
|---|---|---|
| Rural | 769 | 68.8 |
| Urban | 351 | 31.2 |

TABLE XIV

SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOL (9-12) ATTENDED

| School Size | Number of Teachers Reporting | Per Cent of Total Teachers |
|---|---|---|
| 1-300 | 673 | 60.0 |
| Over 300 | 447 | 40.0 |

After the type of home community had been investigated, one of the later items on the questionnaire requested an indication of whether the teacher preferred teaching in a rural or urban school. These results were compared with the type of home community and the size of high school attended, and the information obtained was incorporated into Tables XV and XVI.

TABLE XV

COMPARISON OF TYPES OF HOME COMMUNITIES WITH TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR RURAL OR URBAN SCHOOLS

| Type of Home Community | Teachers Who Preferred to Teach in Rural Schools | | Teachers Who Preferred to Teach in Urban Schools | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | %(of each group) | N | %(of each group) |
| Rural | 731 | 95.4 | 38 | 4.6 |
| Urban | 327 | 93.1 | 24 | 6.9 |

TABLE XVI

COMPARISON OF SIZE OF HIGH SCHOOLS (9-12) ATTENDED BY TEACHERS WITH PREFERENCE FOR RURAL OR URBAN SCHOOLS

| Size of High School Attended | Prefer Rural School | | Prefer Urban School | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | %(of each group) | N | %(of each group) |
| 1-300 | 644 | 95.6 | 29 | 4.4 |
| Over 300 | 430 | 96.1 | 17 | 3.9 |

The results obtained indicated, with some certainty, that the type of community or size of high school had little effect on the teacher's preference. Possibly the reason 96.1 per cent from larger high schools preferred rural schools was that this included rural students who had attended consolidated schools.

Many questions have been raised as to whether rural students come back to their rural communities to levels. To answer this, the teachers in the study were asked if they were teaching in their home communities. The results are shown in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII

NUMBER OF TEACHERS TEACHING
IN THEIR HOME COMMUNITIES

| Community | Number of Teachers Reporting | Per Cent of Total |
|---|---|---|
| Home | 212 | 18.9 |
| Different | 908 | 81.1 |

## In What Civic and Recreational Activities Do Rural Teachers Participate?

A large part of the literature emphasized that rural teachers should be community leaders. To determine whether the teachers were fulfilling this responsibility or not, they were asked to identify the civic activities available in their communities and to further identify the ones in which they participated.

Because recreational activities are also a form of community activity at times and because they might indicate characteristics of teachers who prefer rural schools, a comprehensive question was included to make a close examination of the recreational interests of the teachers sampled.

These data are presented in Tables XVIII and XX.

## TABLE XVIII

## REPORTED CIVIC ACTIVITIES AND TEACHER PARTICIPATION

| Activity | Per Cent of Total Teachers Reporting This Activity* | Per Cent of Teachers Reporting Activity Who Participated in the Activity* |
|---|---|---|
| Service Clubs | 38.8 | 37.4 |
| 4-H | 77.4 | 16.6 |
| FFA | 37.2 | 8.6 |
| Grange | 26.2 | 12.6 |
| Choral Groups | 29.2 | 38.4 |
| Religious Groups | 96.8 | 78.6 |
| Hobby Groups | 50.0 | 70.8 |
| Farm Bureau | 47.6 | 19.8 |
| National Farmers Organization | 18.0 | 16.8 |
| Patriotic Groups | 30.3 | 19.5 |
| Fraternal Groups | 42.3 | 24.5 |
| Farmers Union | 22.3 | 25.6 |
| Boy/Girl Scouts | 65.0 | 20.8 |
| YMCA/YWCA | 7.1 | 15.2 |
| Recreational Groups | 37.7 | 75.8 |

* Does not total 100% as more than one response came from many teachers.

While the teachers reported an interesting range of community activities, they did not report high participation in many of them. Particularly surprising is the small percentage engaged in Scouting.

The high percentage participating in religious groups correlates perfectly with those indicating church interest as a recreation. Hobby groups were reported by half the group, but the half had high participation. Recreational groups were reported by a little more than one-third, but this one-third also had high participation.

It is interesting to compare the results of Table XVIII with the data of Table XIX, which is taken from a current government publication.[2]

TABLE XIX

RURAL PARTICIPATION IN YOUTH ORGANIZATIONS--1966

| Organization | Number of Rural Participants |
|---|---|
| 4-H | 2,022,880 |
| Boy Scouts | 1,629,974 |
| Girl Scouts | 627,675 |
| Future Homemakers | 600,690 |
| FFA | 445,386 |
| Camp Fire Girls | 360,000 |
| YMCA | 82,659 |
| Red Cross (by schools) | 80,729 |
| Farmers Union Youth Program | 15,000 |
| YWCA | 14,000 |

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[2] Economic Research Service, "Rural Youth in a Changing Society," supplement to Age of Transition, Agriculture Handbook No. 347, U. S. Department of Agriculture (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 41.

Apparently the rural young people are interested. Just as apparently, however, somebody else besides the teachers have been leading the organizations. The table of recreational interests, Table XX, compares the interests of the teachers as a group and those who prefer rural or urban schools. It was hoped to identify some specific recreational interest characteristics of teachers preferring rural schools.

Both those preferring rural schools and those preferring urban schools frequently listed reading as a major recreational interest. In the rural group, however, over seventy per cent of the teachers indicated interest as opposed to slightly over fifty per cent for the urban preferring group. There was a great difference in participation in church activities. The rural groups participated almost eighty per cent of the time, as opposed to about thirty per cent for the urban preference.

For the group with a rural preference, the most frequently checked interests were reading, church, television, hunting, and gardening. For those who preferred the urban school, the most frequently checked interests were reading, television, bowling, dancing, outdoor spectator sports, indoor participant sports, and fine arts.

Although the interest patterns for both groups were fairly similar, the teachers preferring rural schools showed more interest in those activities easier to participate in and generally more favored in the rural community.

It should be remembered that virtually all the teachers in this study were teaching in small rural schools. Perhaps if a sample were drawn from urban schools, more pronounced differences would be found in recreational interests.

## TABLE XX

## A COMPARISON OF THE RECREATIONAL INTERESTS OF RURAL TEACHERS AS A GROUP WITH THOSE WHO PREFER RURAL SCHOOLS AND THOSE WHO PREFER URBAN SCHOOLS

| Interest | Entire Group of Sampled Teachers | Teachers Prefer Rural School | Teachers Prefer Urban School |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Per Cent Indicating This Interest* | Per Cent Indicating This Interest* | Per Cent Indicating This Interest* |
| Reading | 69.7 | 70.8 | 51.6 |
| Church | 76.2 | 78.9 | 32.3 |
| Television | 73.0 | 73.3 | 66.1 |
| Indoor Hobbies | 29.7 | 30.6 | 14.5 |
| Outdoor Hobbies | 37.4 | 38.7 | 16.1 |
| Bowling | 43.9 | 42.7 | 64.5 |
| Dancing | 40.1 | 38.8 | 61.3 |
| Flying | 4.3 | 4.3 | 4.8 |
| Hunting | 48.6 | 50.3 | 16.1 |
| Fishing | 41.6 | 42.3 | 29.0 |
| Gardening | 62.0 | 64.1 | 27.4 |
| Hiking | 42.4 | 43.7 | 21.0 |
| Outdoor Sports-Participant | 39.3 | 40.7 | 14.5 |
| Outdoor Sports-Spectator | 41.3 | 40.1 | 61.3 |
| Indoor Sports-Participant | 42.5 | 41.1 | 67.7 |
| Indoor Sports-Spectator | 21.9 | 22.2 | 17.7 |
| Drama-Music Participant | 20.3 | 19.6 | 32.3 |
| Drama-Music Spectator | 20.0 | 20.0 | 21.0 |
| Politics | 8.7 | 8.7 | 9.7 |
| Breeding or Raising Pets | 8.2 | 8.4 | 4.8 |
| Household Arts | 30.7 | 31.7 | 14.5 |
| Youth Work | 21.8 | 21.7 | 24.2 |
| Crafts | 21.3 | 22.1 | 8.1 |
| Photography | 17.0 | 16.6 | 22.6 |
| Fine Arts | 11.7 | 9.4 | 51.6 |
| Writing | 21.5 | 22.2 | 8.1 |

* Does not total 100 per cent as more than one response came from several teachers.

In What Extra-Curricular Activities Do Rural Teachers Participate?

To help identify what sort of extra requirements are placed upon rural teachers, they were asked to identify the extra-curricular duties they had to perform and how often they performed them. The results are shown in Tables XXI-XXIII.

TABLE XXI

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES REPORTED BY RURAL TEACHERS

| Activity | Per Cent of Total Teachers Involved* | Avg. Frequency or Activity per Teacher |
|---|---|---|
| Supervise Clubs | 38.4 | Weekly |
| Class Sponsor | 11.4 | Bi-Weekly |
| Yearbook or Paper | 9.9 | Weekly |
| School Plays | 23.8 | Once a Semester |
| Student Council | 1.7 | Bi-Weekly |
| Band, Orchestra | 2.9 | Semi-Weekly |
| Glee Club | 6.5 | Every Other Day |
| Dances | 2.8 | Twice a Semester |
| Supervise Playgrounds | 65.0 | Daily on Alternate Weeks |
| Supervise Building | 2.7 | Daily on Alternate Weeks |
| Supervise Lunchroom | 56.1 | Every Third Day |
| Prepare Meals | 11.4 | Daily |
| Supervise Athletic Events | 8.2 | Every Other Day |
| Coach | 23.1 | Daily, in Season |
| Drive Bus | 10.6 | Daily |
| Bus Duty | 9.7 | Daily on Alternate Weeks |
| Supervise Study Hall | 26.1 | Daily |
| Janitorial Service | 25.2 | Daily |
| School Librarian | 3.5 | Daily |
| Counseling | 4.4 | Weekly |
| Other, Miscellaneous | 2.0 | -- |
| None | 6.7 | -- |

* Does not total 100 per cent. More than one response came from many teachers.

## TABLE XXII

## NUMBER OF SPORTS COACHED BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

| Number of Sports Coached | Per Cent of Teachers Coaching (259) Who Coach This Number |
|---|---|
| 1 | 47.9 |
| 2 | 40.5 |
| 3 | 9.3 |
| 4 | 2.3 |

## TABLE XXIII

## NUMBER OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES REQUIRED OF INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

| Number of Activities Required | Per Cent of Total Teachers (1120) Handling Each Number |
|---|---|
| 0 | 6.7 |
| 1 | 25.5 |
| 2 | 38.4 |
| 3 | 20.4 |
| 4 | 6.4 |
| 5 | 2.6 |

From the group sampled, the duties most often requested were supervising playgrounds, supervising lunchrooms, and supervising clubs, in that order. Apparently most schedules were set up so that the teachers did not have their activities all the time.

Many of the extra-curricular activities were identical to those found in urban schools, with the exception of preparing meals, bus driving, and janitorial service.

One young lady, commenting on the necessity for doing janitorial service said, "The only thing I simply cannot get used to after five years of it, is cleaning out the outdoor toilets."

The number of activities handled by individual teachers varied from none (almost 7 per cent) to five. The overall average was 2.0 activities per teacher.

The coaches were involved in anywhere from one to four sports, though only 2.3 per cent were responsible for four sports. Almost ninety per cent handled only one or two sports. The overall average was 1.6 sports per teacher.

Before proceeding to examine the data on adequacy of preparation and advantages and disadvantages of rural schools, it would seem to be appropriate to present the picture of the rural teacher in America as the group sampled for this study made it appear.

The teachers were almost evenly divided by sex, with only about ten per cent more women than men. About fifty per cent of the group were teaching in schools under 200 enrollment, in communities of less than 1000 population, and in elementary schools only. The average experience for the group was slightly over thirteen years, and about ninety per cent were fully certified at the time of the study.

About twenty per cent of the group were single, while about twenty-five per cent of the married teachers were married to teachers. Seventy per cent of the group came originally from rural communities.

Ninety-five per cent of the total group preferred teaching in rural schools, even though only twenty-five per cent had done student teaching in a rural community. Less than twenty per cent were teaching in their home communities, and most of these were found in two states.

In a high percentage of the communities in the study, the primary source of income was agriculture, though this was not the only source. There were numerous civic activities reported in the communities, but the teachers confined their interests mainly to religious groups, hobby groups, and recreational groups. Recreation seemed to play a large part in the communities. The recreational interests for over fifty per cent of the teachers included reading, church, television viewing, and gardening.

This, then, is the picture of the predominant characteristics of the group which supplied the data for the three remaining purposes of the study.

## What Are the Areas of Preservice Preparation In Which Rural Teachers Think They Were Most Adequately Prepared?

Teachers were asked if the preservice education they had received was satisfactory preparation for rural school teaching. From the group as a whole, only twenty-five per cent felt their preparation was adequate. In the group which came from rural communities, thirty per cent felt they had an adequate preparation. This was in comparison with the twelve per cent from urban communities who felt their preparation was adequate.

Among the teachers for different grade levels, twenty-one per cent of the elementary teachers believed they were adequately prepared, compared with thirty-two per cent of the secondary teachers. Among the combined elementary-secondary teachers, twenty-three per cent believed they were adequately prepared.

The actual figures for these groups are found in Table XXIV.

TABLE XXIV

ADEQUACY OF PRESERVICE PREPARATION AS PERCEIVED BY THE TEACHER SAMPLE

| Adequacy of Preparation | All Teachers % | From Rural Communities % | From Urban Communities % | Elementary Teachers Only % | Secondary Teachers Only % | Elementary Secondary Combinations % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Adequate | 24.6 | 30.2 | 12.2 | 20.9 | 32.4 | 22.9 |
| Not-Adequate | 75.4 | 69.8 | 87.8 | 79.1 | 67.6 | 77.1 |

A possibly significant comparison can be made between the data on adequacy of preparation and the data on type of school in which student teaching took place. These were originally presented separately in Tables XI and XXIV. Together these data may be seen in Table XXV.

TABLE XXV

ADEQUACY OF PREPARATION AND LOCATION OF STUDENT TEACHING AS INDICATED BY THE TEACHERS SAMPLED

| Adequacy of Preparation | Per Cent of All Teachers Reporting | Location of Student Teaching | Per Cent of All Teachers Reporting |
|---|---|---|---|
| Inadequate | 75.4 | None in Rural Schools or None at All | 75.6 |
| Adequate | 24.6 | All or Part in Rural Schools | 24.4 |

While this is not conclusive evidence, based on the total number of teachers involved, it does indicate that the importance of student teaching in the rural school may have been minimized in the preservice preparation of rural teachers.

This matter of adequacy of preparation did receive further examination. The teachers were asked to indicate from a list of thirty-five areas those in which they felt they had been adequately prepared prior to teaching in a rural school. They were also given space to indicate any other areas, not in the list, in which they believed their preparation was adequate.

In the overall group, more of the teachers indicated adequate preparation in pupil discipline than in any other area. Some reasonably high percentages of teachers also indicated that they had been adequately prepared in various areas of psychology. A further area of adequate preparation indicated by almost fifty per cent of all the teachers was educational media. The use of their adequate preparation, however, was questioned by almost twenty-five per cent of this group, who wrote such comments as, "What good did it do me to learn all the latest techniques in educational media? The only thing we have resembling any of the new equipment is a very old movie projector and my own radio."

In addition to the general group, these results were broken down into adequacy of preparation as perceived by elementary teachers, secondary teachers, and elementary-secondary combinations. Generally, the results were very similar to those expressed by the entire group. Two noticeable exceptions showed that the elementary teachers did not believe themselves as well prepared in the educational media area as the other groups, and the elementary-secondary combined group felt quite deficient in pupil discipline.

Generally, the areas of adequate preparation were areas in which any teacher would have expected an adequate preparation. None of the areas which might have applied directly to rural education were indicated as areas of adequate preparation. Unfortunately, almost fourteen per cent of the entire group indicated they did not believe they were adequately prepared in any area.

Details of this part of the study are presented in Table XXVI.

## TABLE XXVI

## ADEQUACY OF PRESERVICE PREPARATION IN DIFFERENT AREAS AS PERCEIVED BY THE TEACHER SAMPLE

| General Area of Preparation | % of All Teachers in Sample | % of Elementary Teachers | % of Secondary Teachers | % of Elementary-Secondary Teacher Combinations |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Guidance & counseling of rural students | 11.0 | 7.3 | 17.5 | 11.9 |
| Social foundations | 12.8 | 13.8 | 13.1 | 9.7 |
| Exceptional children | 14.5 | 9.4 | 21.6 | 17.6 |
| Anthropology | 9.1 | 2.4 | 19.1 | 12.3 |
| Rural sociology | 17.9 | 11.6 | 29.3 | 18.1 |
| Social behavior of rural children | 18.4 | 20.4 | 12.7 | 21.2 |
| Practical rural living | 16.1 | 12.3 | 22.0 | 17.6 |
| Creativity | 13.9 | 7.3 | 25.8 | 14.6 |
| Creative thinking | 7.2 | 4.0 | 12.1 | 8.8 |
| School-community relations | 14.3 | 6.1 | 27.3 | 17.4 |
| Community recreation | 19.8 | 19.3 | 23.5 | 16.3 |
| Educational media | 43.4 | 32.6 | 67.6 | 37.0 |
| English as a second language | 11.6 | 11.4 | 9.5 | 15.0 |
| Teaching different ethnic groups | 10.6 | 9.2 | 12.8 | 12.3 |
| Vocational agriculture | 9.6 | 5.2 | 14.0 | 15.0 |
| Teaching with minimum facilities | 13.8 | 11.6 | 14.9 | 17.6 |
| Elementary curriculum | 25.2 | 31.3 | .01 | 43.7 |
| Secondary curriculum | 21.6 | .01 | 65.0 | 15.9 |
| Teaching several grades in same room | 13.9 | 20.6 | .01 | 16.1 |
| Teaching wider than normal age groups | 12.0 | 11.8 | 11.7 | 12.8 |
| Individual differences | 14.3 | 11.4 | 16.5 | 18.5 |
| Rural economics | 15.6 | 10.0 | 26.4 | 15.0 |
| Training in a broad number of fields | 18.0 | 21.5 | 6.0 | 25.6 |
| Specialized training in a few areas | 14.3 | 8.0 | 28.3 | 11.0 |
| Methods courses that are practical | 6.9 | 2.1 | 19.4 | 2.2 |
| Pupil discipline | 70.1 | 83.9 | 70.5 | 35.3 |
| Speech and public speaking | 22.4 | 20.1 | 23.8 | 26.0 |
| Educational innovations | 10.0 | 20.8 | 24.5 | 10.1 |
| General psychology | 60.8 | 61.6 | 59.0 | 62.1 |
| Child psycholoty | 48.3 | 73.1 | 5.4 | 44.8 |
| Adolescent psychology | 36.8 | 3.3 | 92.5 | 44.8 |
| Abnormal psychology | 8.9 | 3.1 | 20.0 | 8.4 |
| Mental hygiene | 43.8 | 37.4 | 57.8 | 40.6 |
| Learning theories | 8.8 | 3.1 | 19.7 | 8.4 |
| Human growth and development | 47.1 | 54.9 | 30.8 | 50.3 |
| Unprepared in every area | 13.6 | 12.8 | 4.8 | 28.2 |

## What Are Those Areas of Preservice Preparation In Which Rural Teachers Believe Work Should Either Be Initiated Or Improved?

To help determine where preservice preparation was poor, the teachers in the sample were asked to indicate any such locations in the thirty-five listed areas. They were further asked to indicate any unlisted areas where preservice education was poor or did not exist.

The area most frequently mentioned was listed by 92.5 per cent of the entire sample group. This area was the need for more practical methods courses. Hundreds of comments were made to the effect that the methods courses had been utterly useless. Some of these comments are listed in the following quotations from questionnaires: (1) "I found the teachers who taught _about_ teaching to be the poorest teachers. Their thinking was fuzzy, their language filled with jargon, and their values were often contradictory."; (2) "The methods courses were a great disappointment to me. What could have been worthwhile in terms of teaching methods and devices turned out to be very general opinions of a very uninterested professor, with no values at all to a student looking for ways to present classroom material that would be stimulating to the teacher and student."; (3) "My methods courses could be presented in one course entitled, _How to Seat Students and Adjust the Classroom Thermostat_."; (4) "Of all the education courses I took in college, the methods courses always fell far short of a minimum of what a student had a right to expect."; (5) "I took two methods courses after I had taught for five years, and the only thing I got from them was six hours credit."; (6) "My methods courses were taught by two young professors who had had no teaching experience at all. The courses were theoretical beyond belief and absolutely no feeling for the demands of a classroom with children in it."; (7) "My methods courses were lacking in accuracy, depth, and any richness of subject matter."; (8) "I was exposed to methods courses in a school where the majority of the education students come from rural communities and then teach in rural communities. One professor, who had just received his doctor's degree from a large city university and had never taught in any school, taught one course. The other course was taught by a teacher who had taught in the public schools of a large city for almost twenty years prior to his college teaching. The one man had all theory while the other told of his experiences in teaching. When I got to a rural situation, I knew nothing of teaching in that type of school."; (9) "If I had not been so vitally interested in teaching I would have dropped out after my methods courses. They were the most sterile courses I have ever been exposed to."; (10) "My methods courses were trivial, impractical, and vague."; (11) "I found the methods courses in both colleges that I attended to be highly repetitive, pseudo-scientific, poorly organized and very badly taught."; (12) "I felt that my methods courses almost deliberately smothered the vibrant features of both teaching and the students."; (13) "In my methods courses I learned how to keep a child happy, but not how to teach him anything."; (14) "I felt my methods courses were a complete waste of both time and energy."; (15) "A good, useful methods course, and I never had such a thing, would demand professors who did much more work than their students, who revised their courses every year, who were deeply interested in both the welfare of their own students and their students' prospective students, and who had had extensive teaching experience themselves outside of college teaching. I have found that most college professors either cannot or will not do this."

Mentioned next most frequently was the need for learning to teach with minimum facilities. In line with this, over 300 teachers wrote that they knew equipment could be secured with federal funds, but their administrators were so far behind the times they did not know how to apply for such funds. Further, they almost all stated a belief that in addition to better preservice education for teachers, rural schools needed new, alert, well-educated administrators.

Next in frequency was the felt need for instruction in setting up and handling school-community relations. Over 200 teachers indicated a weakness in preparation in this area. Many wrote that they had made efforts to obtain help from their state university or from their State Department of Education. In no instance had help been forthcoming, and in many instances the teachers reported that they had not even received acknowledgement of their requests. One teacher reported that a state university representative had written, "Sorry. We know that we must live with you rural people, but we don't really have anyone on the faculty who is interested in rural schools."

In all, there were twelve areas in which over seventy per cent of the teachers believed work was necessary. It included one area listed as Practical Rural Living. Again, several hundred teachers said that they wished they had been taught some elementary carpentery, plumbing and electricity. They wished they had known something about elementary first aid, sanitation, and nutrition. All these would have been helpful, they indicated.

One write-in area was significant. Fifty-three per cent of the teachers wrote that they believed all rural teachers should have a background in remedial reading.

Areas in which forty per cent or more of the teachers sampled believed that preservice education should either be initiated or improved are indicated in Table XXVII. The areas have been presented in descending order, not in the order in which they were presented on the questionnaire.

### TABLE XXVII

### AREAS IN WHICH FORTY PER CENT OR MORE OF RURAL TEACHERS SAMPLED BELIEVED PRESERVICE EDUCATION SHOULD BE INITIATED OR IMPROVED

| Areas of Preparation, in Order of Descending Frequency | Per Cent of Teachers Indicating Area |
|---|---|
| Methods courses that are practical | 92.5 |
| Teaching with minimum facilities | 83.3 |
| School-community relations | 78.6 |
| Guidance and counseling of rural students | 76.7 |
| Training in a broad number of fields | 76.2 |
| Rural sociology | 73.6 |
| Teaching several grades in the same room | 72.6 |
| Community recreation | 71.4 |
| Exceptional children | 71.2 |
| Practical rural living | 70.7 |
| Rural economics | 70.4 |
| Individual differences | 70.1 |
| Social behavior of rural children | 61.8 |
| Creativity | 60.4 |
| Creative thinking | 52.9 |
| Remedial reading | 52.8 |
| Speech and public speaking | 47.6 |
| Teaching wider than normal age groups | 41.2 |
| Social foundations | 39.9 |

## What Do Rural Teachers Perceive as the Advantages and Disadvantages of Teaching in the Small Rural School?

This question was presented to the rural teachers in the form of two open-ended questions. The grouped replies are arranged in descending order in Tables XXVIII and XXIX.

The replies to the advantages of teaching in a rural school were quite emphatic. They dealt largely with the closeness of the teacher to the student and the various advantages of rurality. In general, they seemed to indicate that an important factor in the teacher's satisfaction was the degree to which he fitted into and was accepted by the rural community.

On the other hand, those who indicated disadvantages did not show nearly as much agreement. In only one area, the lack of facilities, was there broad agreement. In every other area the perceived disadvantages seemed to be little personal things. They had no privacy. They had too many preparations. They thought the children were of low ability. There was cultural disadvantagement. They couldn't drink. In general, they seemed to indicate a lack of adjustment to a small, rural community.

In all, the answers to this question indicated that those who were in rural schools and liked them, knew why they liked them. Almost without exception, this reason reduced to the fact that there was good student-teacher-parent-community interaction.

## TABLE XXVII

## ADVANTAGES OF TEACHING IN A RURAL SCHOOL AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHER SAMPLE

| Advantage | % |
|---|---|
| 1. Teacher is closer to each student; knows more of child's home life; becomes better acquainted with each student; gets to know parents of most children; knows needs of children better; knows their backgrounds; | 94.1 |
| 2. Can become more involved in community activities; is expected to be a leader; is looked up to; parents are very cooperative; parents seldom interfere; school is center of community life; parents appreciate school; more on an equal with all people; | 88.4 |
| 3. Children receive more individualized attention; more time to work with slower students; easier to develop broad areas in accord with student's desires; one teacher can work with same student several years; | 82.1 |
| 4. Less discipline problems; better cooperation from students; better student-teacher relationships; children more eager to attend school; better learning situation for children; | 72.2 |
| 5. Less "red tape" to go through; quiet, stable life; easier to identify with children's problems; more relaxed; lack of pressures; freedom of rural life; less tension; greater freedom; learn more about school operation and administration; lack of social pressure; | 64.3 |
| 6. Youngsters learn more of self-discipline and self-help; work ahead more on their own; children learn a lot of good things from older children; have more opportunities to be occupied in and out of school; more chance to take part in extra curricular activities; | 60.5 |
| 7. Small classes; less crowding; more classroom space; lower teacher-pupil ratio; fewer interruptions in school day by special interest groups or clubs; more informal classes; | 59.0 |
| 8. Teachers are a closer knit group; good faculty communications; not as much backbiting among teachers; freedom from administrative pettiness and harassment; freedom from politics; fewer bosses; less supervision; | 58.0 |

TABLE XXVII, Continued

| Advantage | % |
|---|---|
| 9. Less duties outside school hours; simple extra-curricular duties during school; | 50.7 |
| 10. Living is cheaper; often higher salaries today; no transportation and traffic problems for children and teachers; few ethnic problems; rural life is great; no slum areas; unity among farm people that you don't find among urban people; no riots; | 37.3 |
| 11. More outdoor interests for children; wholesome recreational activities; | 34.9 |
| 12. Easier to implement educational innovations; to experiment with your own ideas; more freedom with children and teaching; more uses of all facets of teaching; | 28.9 |
| 13. Children more closely supervised at home; character is stressed more; parents usually require higher moral values in rural areas; | 22.8 |
| 14. Teacher feels more autonomous being the only teacher in a grade; teacher feels more responsibility for teaching each child as much as possible; teacher gains more by giving more. | 17.0 |

TABLE XXIX

DISADVANTAGES OF TEACHING IN A RURAL SCHOOL AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHER SAMPLE

| Disadvantage | % |
|---|---|
| 1. Not as much equipment or materials to work with; lack of modern educational facilities; lack of library facilities; lack of money for departments; | 50.2 |
| 2. Limited social and cultural opportunities; fewer extra-curricular activities; deprived environment; too isolated; no recreation; | 20.9 |
| 3. Teachers often not qualified or conscientious; too much teacher turnover; few qualified substitutes; teachers don't change methods; teachers tend to over-rate their own abilities when there are few teachers; | 20.2 |
| 4. Teachers often pressured for grades in small towns; too much family pressure; people more set in their ways and more apt to attack a teacher for some minor idiosyncracy; parents often meddle and don't cooperate; people know where you go and what you do; gossip; NO PRIVACY | 19.5 |
| 5. Less course choices for student; less enrichment programs; limited curriculum; lack of special services--special ed. classes, guidance, remedial classes, etc. | 17.9 |
| 6. Provincial viewpoint of students and parents; insufficient community interest to support cultural activities; too many prejudices; rigid, narrow moral standards; many feel an 8th grade education is sufficient; | 17.9 |
| 7. Too much pressure upon administration, which can hamper education; too many old-fashioned administrators in rural schools; inflexible administrators; school boards seem to be unsympathetic to educational problems; boards often sincere but not educated; too many ranchers and farmers try to control the money that they give to schools; | 16.8 |
| 8. Limited motivation for students; few challenges; few competitive opportunities--socially or scholastically; classes too small; fewer opportunities for group work; | 13.7 |
| 9. Pay low, cost of living is higher; lack of adequate housing and stores; lack of parental interest; limited church choices; | 12.3 |

TABLE XXIX, Continued

| Disadvantage | % |
|---|---|
| 10. Often do own janitorial work; sometimes no electricity; often no toilets or running water; too much clerical work for teacher; | 12.2 |
| 11. Too many preparations; too many extra duties; too large a variety of classes taught by one individual; cannot specialize in one field; often can't teach in field in which you are prepared; less independent; | 9.9 |
| 12. No disadvantages | 8.2 |
| 13. Children often very limited with regard to background, vocabulary, comprehension, and knowledge of the United States; | 7.7 |
| 14. Teacher-pupil-parent relationship can become too unprofessional too easily; personalities taken into consideration too much; tendency to do too much for children; people "take you for granted"; | 6.9 |
| 15. Students spend too much time on buses; older children with younger children is bad; some students involved in too many activities; transportation problems in inclement weather; | 6.2 |
| 16. Little chance for professional advancement and growth; no colleagues in same grade or subject area; local teacher associations often weak; little contact with other educator's groups; | 5.8 |

# CHAPTER V

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section presents a summary of the study, including purposes, procedures, and findings. The second section contains conclusions based upon the data. Recommendations and suggestions for further research are presented in the third section.

## Summary of the Study

### The Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the following questions: (1) What per cent of rural teachers come from rural areas? (2) In what civic and recreational activities do rural teachers participate? (3) In what extra-curricular activities do rural teachers participate? (4) What are the areas of preservice preparation in which rural teachers think they are most adequately prepared? (5) What are those areas of preservice preparation which rural teachers think should either be improved upon or initiated? (6) What do rural teachers perceive as the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in the small rural schools?

### The Procedure

The literature about the history of preservice preparation for rural school teachers was thoroughly examined. All the literature on on Rural Schools in the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools was studied. Numerous authorities on rural education were questioned.

The result was the construction of a valid and reliable questionnaire designed to carry out the program of descriptive research required to secure the needed data.

After clearing the study through proper administrative channels, 1511 questionnaires were sent to a randomized sample of teachers and schools, divided almost equally among ten rural states. Schools contacted included one-teacher schools, rural elementary schools, rural secondary schools, and rural elementary-secondary schools combined.

One thousand one hundred and forty-eight questionnaires were returned. Of this number, 1120 were usable. The data collected through the questionnaires were analyzed in part by computer and in part by hand.

## The Findings

When the randomized sample of rural schools and their teachers were contacted, eighty per cent of the 1120 teachers responding were found to be in schools of 300 or less enrollment and communities of 2000 or less population. Fifty-two per cent of the teachers were elementary teachers.

The main sources of income for the various communities were quite diversified. Agriculture was mentioned, however, almost twice as often as any other source. In certain parts of the country, sources of income came from occupations which were indigenous to those areas. It was interesting to note that in some areas the railroad was still the chief source of income. In other areas welfare had also become a chief source of income.

Slightly more than half of the sample contacted were women. The teaching experience of the entire group ranged from one year to forty-nine years. The mean was 13.1 years, and the median was 9.2 years. About 20 per cent of the teachers had taught in schools between 2500 and 25,000 population. Less than 10 per cent had taught in schools over 2500 population.

While about thirty-two per cent of the teachers were not initially fully certified, only about twelve per cent were uncertified at the time of the study.

Almost twenty per cent of the teachers reported they were single. Another twenty per cent reported that their spouses were also teachers, and twenty-six per cent reported that their spouses did not work. The other thirty per cent reported occupations ranging from farmer to grave-digger.

Most of the teachers either did no student teaching or had done none in rural schools--a total of 75.6 per cent in all. The balance, 24.4 per cent of the teachers, did all or part of their student teaching in rural schools. These figures became even more revealing when later data disclosed that 75.4 per cent of the teachers believed they were inadequately prepared for rural teaching. At the same time only 24.6 per cent of the teachers believed they were adequately prepared.

An examination of the data definitely suggested a fallacy in the idea that rural teachers tend to teach in their home communities. This study showed that by better than four to one the teachers were teaching in different communities.

Of the total sample of 1120 teachers, 68.8 per cent came from rural communities. A seeming incongruity that only sixty per cent attended small rural schools is readily explained by the fact of school consolidation. In this manner a student could live in a small community and attend a relatively large high school.

The preferences of teachers for rural or urban schools were compared to their type of home background. The indication was that the teachers from either rural or urban homes overwhelmingly preferred to teach in the rural school.

An examination of the civic activities of rural teachers showed that there was a comparatively broad offering of activities available. The teachers, however, did not seem to participate extensively, except in religious activities and hobby and recreation groups.

Among recreational interests, the teachers as a group chose church activities, television, reading, and gardening as their top four interests. Those who preferred rural school teaching showed the same preferences, not surprising where the proportion of that group to the entire group is considered. Those teachers preferring urban schools indicated their chief recreational interests included participation in indoor sports in general, television, bowling, and dancing. The latter two were, of course, closely related to the first choice, indoor sports participation.

The data also showed that almost sixty-four per cent of the rural teachers handled only one or two extra-curricular activities.

The most widely reported activity was supervising playgrounds, which was done daily on alternate weeks by the majority of those reporting this activity. The next most widely reported activity was supervising lunchrooms, which was performed every third day by most teachers reporting this activity. A small but not unimportant percentage, eight per cent, reported that parents handled such activities as these, and were doing it successfully.

When the data concerning adequacy of preparation were examined, several significant facts appeared. The first one was that 75.4 per cent of the teachers did not believe that they were adequately prepared. The second fact was that the areas where the preparation was considered to be adequate were generally in psychological background and in scattered areas such as pupil discipline and acquaintance with the various educational media. The third fact was that there was no area of adequate preparation indicated by more than twenty per cent of the total group which applied directly to rurality. A fourth fact was that almost fourteen per cent of the group indicated that they did not believe they were adequately prepared in any of the areas.

When the same teachers were asked to point out any areas in which they believed instruction should be improved or initiated, the response was tremendous. If a forty per cent minimum were used as a criterion of the teachers indicating work was needed, then there were nineteen areas listed in which the group sampled believed work should be improved or initiated.

In all these areas, the one which produced virtually a blanket indictment was providing practical methods courses. Out of the 1120 teachers responding, 92.5 per cent condemned the methods courses they had taken after writing very specific notes on the questionnaires.

In addition to this area, the teachers indicated that preservice education should be offered in such areas as guidance and counseling of rural students, exceptional children, rural sociology, social behavior of rural children, practical rural living, creativity and creative thinking. They felt even stronger about areas such as school-community relations, community recreation, how to teach with minimum facilities, how to teach several groups in the same classroom, individual differences, rural economics, and training in a broad number of fields.

The last information solicited from the teachers was their opinion of the advantages and disadvantages of rural school teaching.

Word-for-word, few were alike. After many had been examined, however, the advantages seemed to fall into groups having to do with the interaction of student-teacher-parent-community.

On the other hand, the disadvantages did not readily group, with the exception of those pertaining to the inadequacy of such items as equipment and buildings. The remainder of them seemed to be a series of petty annoyances, with little consistency.

## Conclusions

From an analysis of the opinions expressed by the teachers in the sample, certain conclusions appeared to be justified. They are presented in two parts. The first contains conclusions related to the teachers, their activities, and their interests. The second contains conclusions related to the rural schools and the preparation of teachers for these schools. Among other limitations, the conclusions presented must be considered as tentative.[1]

Conclusions Related to the Teachers, Their Activities, Their Interests

1. Over two-thirds of the teachers employed in the rural schools had rural backgrounds, and a majority of these teachers with rural backgrounds were not teaching in their home communities. Further, a vast majority of all rural teachers, regardless of background, preferred to teach in rural communities.
2. Generally, rural teachers did not have an unusual number of extra-curricular activities, most having no more than two for which to be responsible. It appeared, however, that a teacher considering rural teaching should not be surprised, under some conditions, to have to prepare meals or drive a bus or perform janitorial services of any type. Otherwise, most of the extra-curricular duties were similar to those in any other school.
3. Numerous civic activities were reported to be available in rural communities. Teacher participation, however, was not good. Most teachers participated extensively in church activities and to a lesser degree in hobby group and recreational activities. In general, the teachers seemed to show a lack of interest in most civic activities.

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[1] For other limitations of this study, see pages 12 and 13.

4. The recreational activities of teachers who preferred rural schools differed in several ways from the interests of those teachers who preferred urban schools. Both groups were television watchers. The rural group, however, showed a marked interest in church activities and gardening, which the other group did not have. On the other hand, the group preferring urban schools showed a marked interest in indoor sports participation and bowling as well as dancing. The rural group did not indicate this interest. It is possible that this difference in recreational interests might be used by administrators where considering teachers for employment in rural schools.

### Conclusions Related to the Rural Schools and the Preparation of Teachers for These Schools

1. One conclusion that was quite obvious from this study was that the rural teacher needed a different preparation from other teachers. There are those who seem to want to eliminate every difference in preparation so that all teachers will resemble each other. However, as long as common experiences and interests make a rural group, rural people will find it desirable to act as such, and teachers will have to be supplied who understand and can interact with this group.
2. The responses indicated that the teacher education programs were not meeting the needs of teachers for rural schools. Particularly, those areas which had a definite rural

orientation were either being very poorly taught or completely neglected. On the other hand, those areas which were common to virtually any teacher's preparation were often presented in adequate fashion. The poorest area of preparation appeared to be the methods courses, which were soundly denounced by almost unanimous opinion.

3. Many questionnaires led to the conclusion that rural administrators were lacking in training in the intricacies of federal aid to education. They seemed to be unacquainted with both the conditions under which federal aid was dispensed and the manner in which it was applied for. Further indications led to the belief that both administrators and school boards in many rural communities were not of the highest quality. Since a lack of good school leadership and community support will prevent any school from being a good one, it was further concluded that the lack of excellence in many rural schools was due both to poorly prepared teachers and low quality administrators.
4. A comparison of the listed advantages of rural schools with the number of teachers preferring rural schools indicated that personal identification with and liking for the rural community were important factors in teacher satisfaction with the rural school.
5. In general, the main advantages of the rural school were the opportunity to be close to the students and know them better, the opportunity to belong in the rural community, the

individual attention that can be given students, and the physical advantages of rurality. On the other hand, the only big disadvantage of the rural school was the apparent lack of adequate facilities, and with better training for administrators this, too, could be eliminated.

## Recommendations

The problems of rural teachers and rural education are not new. However, like many other problems, these were also ignored until necessity dictated their recognition.

The great depression of the 1930's gave rise to one of the earlier attempts for solution in the Community School Movement. This was an effort to construct a curriculum both around the lives of the children and around the economic, recreational, and socio-cultural problems of their communities.

Characteristics of the Community School Movement included attempts at immediate solution of problems in the quality of living, use of the community as a laboratory for learning, and organization of the curriculum around the fundamental processes and problems of living. It also made the school plant a community center, included lay people in school policy and program planning, accepted responsibility for coordination of community agencies, claimed to promote and practice democracy in all human relationships, and emphasized that teachers should be adequately trained to perform these duties.

In the early 1940's the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation provided grants for projects in Applied Economics. Under these grants, community school materials were developed in clothing at the University of Florida, and in food at the University of Kentucky. In both centers, traditional school activities were related to community projects that could be carried out in and with the school. The basic principle followed in each instance was that children learn best when they have the opportunity to use what they are learning.

Ultimately, materials developed both under the auspices of the Sloan Foundation and in independent work were applied very successfully in some public school operations. However, a nation at war had more pressing problems than the improvement of rural education, and the movement did not really catch on.

As the war years and quite a number more passed, little was done to improve the small rural school except reorganize school districts and consolidate many schools. Still, this was not the answer, but was only an initial step on the long road to small school improvement.

Several predominantly rural states in widely scattered parts of the country established projects to solve their own small school problems. Generally these solutions were related only to modifications in school organization and methods in instruction.

Since it soon became clear that no single state was going to be able to solve all the problems of the small school, a regional effort seemed to be the next step. The rationale for this was that each state could still focus upon its own problems and yet cooperate on common problems with other states in the region.

From such reasoning, an agreement was drawn up among Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, and Utah. This agreement provided for a project in small school research, development, and evaluation. The project, called the Western States Small Schools Project, was funded in large part by the Ford Foundation and was begun officially on January 1, 1962. Among the areas studied in relation to the small school have been the use of teacher aides, continuous progress programs, teaching English as a second language, programmed instruction, flexible scheduling, application of modern innovations, and various instructional approaches unique to the one-teacher school.

It is evident that the philosophy of the community school, which emphasized practical projects to make life better for students and members of the community in such areas as health, food, shelter, recreation, race relations, and international understanding, has been replaced by a philosophy which is aimed at comprehensive school improvement to meet all the students' needs and abilities. Perhaps a better philosophy would be a combination of these two.

One of the interesting aspects of the current projects is that while much time and money have been spent to meet the students' needs, little if any time has been spent preparing those who must use and lead in these programs, the American rural teachers.

## Recommendations for the Colleges

On the basis of this investigation, the following recommendations and suggestions are made to colleges which prepare teachers for rural schools.

1. For rurally directed teachers, specific training should be provided to show them how to find and utilize local community resources in their teaching. In addition to subject matter teaching, they must learn how to help improve the quality of community living for both today's and tomorrow's demands. They must have the importance of flexibility instilled in them so that they understand that its lack, either in themselves or their students, could be a greater hindrance to progress in today's technological world than ignorance would be. They need not be polished teachers when they leave college, but they must have the flexibility to adapt to any situation and solve any of the problems which face the rural teacher.
2. Because of the cultural isolation in which rural communities so frequently exist, colleges which prepare the prospective rural teacher must devise courses which will show them how to overcome these isolated conditions of rurality. Such courses must have clearly structured objectives and develop a familiarity in the student with such sources as mobile museums, traveling musical groups, theatrical groups, art exhibits, and libraries. The use of educational television, films, and magnetic tapes must be explained as cultural sources. All this should be over and above the usual class in audio visual techniques for the classroom. Courses of the type suggested should be presented to the teacher as

sources of cultural development both for the rural student and the members of the rural community.

3. All prospective rural teachers should have a much broader background in counselling and guidance. Most students in rural areas have very narrow horizons, and many rural schools cannot afford specialized counsellors. Teachers with broader training could acquaint their students with opportunities lying outside the immediate environment. In many instances well prepared teachers could direct students into areas of preparation which would allow them to return to their home communities and become community leaders.
4. The preservice program for prospective rural teachers should include more observation in rural schools than has been customary. However, students should not be sent out to observe without some theoretical background in education, since such a lack could produce observers who do not really see. They must have enough background to understand and even analyze observed differences in both the teaching and learning processes.
5. Prospective rural teachers should have at least one thorough course in the use of those innovative practices which are found in schools today. Emphasis would be on those practices already developed by the various individual rural projects. Such a course would be an excellent place for the college to present a teaching team to the students. It is unlikely that any one professor would be so familiar with all

these innovations that he could do a better job than several professors who were competent and, hopefully, experienced in several of these areas.

6. To attract more prospective rural teachers, schools of education should become acquainted with the lists of returning Peace Corps volunteers. Many of these young people have worked in rural areas. They have often learned to innovate in order to be useful in the communities where they were stationed. Some even acquired teaching experience whether they were prepared for it or not, but whatever they did, they usually learned to help a community to help itself. While these returnees could be invited to our schools of education to help formulate new programs of study and experience for rural teachers, they should also be invited to prepare to teach in our own rural schools, where their unusual and broad backgrounds might well be of invaluable use.
7. Prospective rural teachers should be provided with extensive training in rural recreation, particularly rural family recreation. This must include learning both to help rural families take advantage of the opportunities for recreational experiences and to determine the opportunities that should be available in various types of geographical areas.
8. To complete the preservice preparation of rural teachers, the college must give them detailed knowledge of the operation and purposes of the various youth and adult groups found in rural schools and communities. This includes Future Farmers

of America, Future Homemakers of America, 4-H Clubs, Distributive Education Clubs of America, the Grange, National Farmers' Organization, and other selected groups. Teachers should be provided with both systematic leadership training in these groups and knowledge of how to organize them.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based upon the results of this study, the following areas in the preservice preparation of teachers for rural schools appear to be worthy of further investigation.

1. Further studies should be made to determine why such a large percentage of rural teachers prefer teaching in these schools. Identification of these reasons should significantly improve teacher recruitment for rural school teaching positions.
2. Further investigation should be made of the finding that the number of teachers who felt they were inadequately prepared was virtually identical to the number of teachers who had had either no rural student teaching or no student teaching at all. Answers should be found to questions such as what is the optimum length of time for student teaching in rural communities. Is the teaching experience for prospective rural teachers so vital that a drastic change should be made in the balance of time between residence study at the college and experience in a rural field situation? Would an intern program or some type of on-the-job training be more useful

for prospective rural teachers than the present system appears to be? Should a completely new type of preparation for rural schools be investigated? Should the present proportions of time devoted to general education, subject field specialization, and professional education be extended into a fifth year?

3. A nationwide study should be made to identify the local resources and activities for youth which are available in rural communities. This would establish community potentialities. It could be used both by teacher preparation institutions and local school systems for the improvement of counselling programs, vocational training and placement programs, cultural services, health and welfare services, and general community betterment. It would also be a source of untapped manpower resources which could be used in rural classrooms as specialists to whom the teachers could turn for special help.
4. In conjunction with the previous problem, a nationwide study should be made of the problems of rural youth. Why have so many rural young people become school drop-outs? What employment opportunities are available for rural youth? What are the academic and technical needs of rural youth?
5. A study should be made to determine exactly what opportunities would be available for our rural youth if we could keep them in their rural communities. This would help to determine both the changes that should be made in the rural

curriculum, and the changes in preparation our rural teachers should have. It might provide answers to questions such as what rural communities could do the balance of the year with those youth who only work during harvest time; which of our present and developing technical occupations are suitable for young people with rural backgrounds; or what technicians are needed in agriculture, and what knowledge and skills are needed by these people?

6. Although many states have been redistricted, this has not solved the problems of rural schools. A study should be made of the practicality of vastly expanding the use of the intermediate district in our rural states. It is possible that this could well be done on geographic, economic, and cultural bases, with little or no regard for current county lines.
7. An investigation should be made into the possibility that the preparation of teachers for rural schools should be the responsibility both of the colleges and the school districts. This would be an even more practical investigation if there were more intermediate districts. How would greater responsibility for teacher education affect school systems? Would it be practical to make joint appointments to the institution and school system for supervisory personnel? Would such a plan add significance to the role of the teacher in the small rural school? What would be the implications of such a dual responsibility for program planning at both

preservice and in-service levels?

This study has attempted to present certain facts about rural teachers and their preparation. The overall results of the study tended to show that teachers are going into rural schools with no preparation to handle the problems they will face and with very little knowledge of what those problems will be. Changes in preparations and further studies should be made as indicated to help develop an adequate program for the preparation of teachers for rural schools.

# APPENDIX A

# QUESTIONNAIRE

# QUESTIONNAIRE
# FOR
# DOCTORAL DISSERTATION
# PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

## Directions

The primary purposes of this questionnaire are to determine what specialized preparation that teachers, currently in the rural field, have had for their positions and what specialized preparation this group feels would be beneficial to people before entering into rural education.

The secondary purposes are to determine (1) certain physical statistics about today's rural schools and the communities in which they exist; and (2) to make a profile of the rural teacher, not only showing his preparation but also facts about his job, his interests and activities, and his background.

From this information it is hoped that recommendations can be made concerning the preparation of teachers for rural schools, and identifications can be made of the characteristics of a typical rural teacher and his job.

A. Please place check marks in the appropriate blank spaces provided, or provide specific answers for the following questions and statements. Some may have more than one check mark or answer.

1. Check each grade that is taught in your school building. K___ 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ 6___ 7___ 8___ 9___ 10___ 11___ 12___

2. What is the student enrollment in your school building? 1-50___ 51-100___ 101-150___ 151-200___ 201-300___ 301-400___ 401-500___ 501-600___ 601-1000___ Over 1000___

3. How many full time teachers are there in your school building? 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ 6___ 7___ 8___ 9___ 10___ 11___ 12___ 13___ 14___ 15___ 16-25___ more than 25___

4. How many full time people are there in your school building who serve part time as teachers and part time as administrators (principal, head teacher, curriculum director, etc.)? 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ 6___ 7___ 8___ 9___ 10 or more___

5. How many full time administrators are there in your school building? 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ more than 5___

6. Do you use any teachers' aides or similar sub-professionals in your school building? Yes___ No___ If yes, how many?___

7. Does your school building draw its students from more than one community? Yes___ No___ If yes, from how many communities? 2___ 3___ 4___ more than 4___
If yes, approximately what is the population of each community?___________________________
If no, approximately what is the population of the community from which it draws?___________________________

8. What is the approximate population of the entire geographical area from which your school building draws its students? 1-250___ 251-500___ 501-750___ 751-1000___ 1001-1250___ 1251-1500___ 1501-1750___ 1751-2000___ 2001-2250___ 2251-2500___ 2501-3000___ 3001-4000___ 4001-5000___ over 5000___

9. What is the age of your school building______________

10. In which of the United States is your school building located?______________

11. What is/are the chief source(s) of income for residents of the area from which children attend your school? Agricultural____ Ranching____ Lumbering___ Mining____ Fishing____ Manufacturing____ Other (state what other souce)______________

12. Check any of the following civic activities that are available in the area served by your school.

a. Service Clubs____ b. 4-H____ c. FFA____ d. Grange____ e. Choral group____ f. Religious groups____ g. Hobby groups____ h. Farm Bureau____ i. National Farmers Organization____ j. Patriotic groups____ k. Fraternal groups____ l. Farmers Union____ m. Boy or Girl Scouts____ n. YMCA or YWCA____ o. Recreational groups____ p. Others (please name)______________

13. Check the letters of any of the activities in No. 12 in which you participate. a___ b___ c___ d___ e___ f___ g___ h___ i___ j___ k___ l___ m___ n___ o___ p(please name)______________

B. This section of the questionnaire is devoted exclusively to you, the teacher. It covers your background, preparation, interests, and your job. Please answer with check marks where requested or fill in specific answers where necessary.

1. What is your age?____ Your sex? M____ F____

2. Which of the following best describes the type of community in which you grew up? Farm____ under 1000 population___ 1000-2499___ 2500-4999___ 5000-9999___ 10,000-25,000___ over 25,000____

3. Approximately how many students attended the high school (grades 9-12) from which you originally graduated? 1-50___ 51-100___ 101-200___ 201-300___ 301-400___ 401-500___ over 500___

4. Are you currently teaching in the community in which you grew up?
Yes___ No___

5. For how many years, including the current one, have you taught in this school building?________________

6. Excluding your experience in this school building, how many years have you taught in communities of less than 2,500 population?____ in communities between 2,500 and 25,000 population?____ in communities over 25,000 population?______

7. Place a check mark in each grade you currently teach.
K___ 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ 6___ 7___ 8___
9___ 10___ 11___ 12___ Adult classes___

8. If you are an elementary teacher, do you have a self-contained classroom____ or is it departmentalized___? If you teach in any of the grades 7-12, what subjects do you teach?______________________________________
________________________________________________

9. Excluding your experience in this school building, how many years have you taught in any grades from K-6_____ 7-9_____ 10-12_____ beyond 12th______

10. How long is your school day? _____hours

11. How many hours do you teach each day? Monday_____ Tuesday____ Wednesday____ Thursday____ Friday____

12. How many hours do you have for planning each day? Monday____ Tuesday____ Wednesday____ Thursday____ Friday____

13. How many students do you teach each day? Monday____ Tuesday____ Wednesday____ Thursday____ Friday____

14. What extra-curricular duties do you perform?

Supervise clubs____ How many?____ How often?____
Supervise playgrounds____ How often?____
Band____ How often?____ Orchestra____ How often____
Glee Club____ How often?____
Supervise lunchroom____ How often?____
Coach____ How many sports?____ How often?____
Drive bus____ How many hours per day?____
Prepare meals____ How often?____
Janitorial Service____ Supervise athletic events____
How often?____
Others (please name, either student activities or extra duty assignments)_____________________________________
________________________________________________

3

15. Check any of the following that represent personal recreation interests of yours. (Check as many as apply) Reading___ Church activities___ Television___ Indoor hobbies (coins, stamps, etc.)___ Outdoor hobbies (rocks, butterflies, etc.)____ Bowling___ Dancing___ Flying___ Hunting___ Fishing___ Gardening___ Hiking___ Other outdoor sports, participant___ spectator___. Other indoor sports, participant___ spectator___. Dramatics or music, participant___ spectator___. Politics___ Breeding and raising pets___ Household arts (sewing cooking, etc.)___ Youth work___ Crafts (ceramic, wood, etc.)___ Photography___ Fine Arts (Painting, sculpturing, etc.)___ Writing___ Other activities (please specify)______________________________________
______________________________________________________
______________________________________________________

16. Does your spouse also teach? Yes___ No___

17. Is your spouse engaged in some other type of work in your broad community? Yes___ No___ If yes, what kind of work?______________________________

18. If you had a choice, in what type of school would you prefer to teach? Small rural school___ Large, consolidated rural school___ Large urban or suburban school___

19. Are you fully certified in your state? Yes___ No___ If not, on what type of certificate are you teaching?
______________________________________________________

20. When you began teaching in rural schools were you fully certified? Yes___ No___

21. Did you do your student teaching in a rural school? Yes, all of it___ How long?___ Yes, some of it___ How long?___ No___

22. Do you believe prospective rural teachers should do their student teaching in rural schools? Yes___ Desirable, but not actually necessary___ No___ If yes, for how long?_____ If no, why not?__________
______________________________________________________

23. As part of their learning experience, should student teachers be requested to live in the rural community where they are teaching? Yes___ No___; should they be requested to take part in community activities? Yes___ Desirable, but not necessary___ No___

24. Listed in this question are 35 areas in which some type of course work or instruction might be initiated or improved in the preservice training of rural teachers. Please place a check mark beside each one that you feel would be a definite help to the teacher going into rural education. There is no limitation; check as many as you feel would be helpful.

1. Guidance and counseling of rural students___ 2. Social foundations___ 3. Exceptional children (bright or retarded)___ 4. Anthropology___ 5. Rural sociology___ 6. Social behavior of rural children___ 7. Practical rural living (home repairs, first aid, health, etc.)___ 8. Creativity___ 9. Creative thinking___ 10. School-community relations___ 11. Community recreation___ 12. Educational media___ 13. English as a second language___ 14. Teaching different ethnic groups___ 15. Vocational agriculture___ 16. Teaching with minimum facilities___ 17. Elementary curriculum___ 18. Secondary curriculum___ 19. Teaching several grades in the same room___ 20. Teaching wider than normal age groups___ 21. Individual differences___ 22. Rural economics___ 23. Training in a broad number of subject fields___ 24. Specialized training in several areas___ 25. Methods courses that are practical___ 26. Pupil discipline___ 27. Speech and public speaking___ 28. Educational innovations___ 29. General psychology___ 30. Child psychology___ 31. Adolescent psychology___ 32. Abnormal psychology___ 33. Mental hygiene___ 34. Learning theories___ 35. Human growth and development___ 36. Other (list any other areas where preservice instruction could be begun or improved)____________________
____________________________________________
____________________________________________
____________________________________________

25. Referring to the areas in number 24, check in the appropriate spaces below all those in which you feel you were adequately prepared to begin rural teaching. (Numbers refer to the areas of #25)

1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ 5___ 6___ 7___ 8___ 9___
10___ 11___ 12___ 13___ 14___ 15___ 16___ 17___
18___ 19___ 20___ 21___ 22___ 23___ 24___ 25___
26___ 27___ 28___ 29___ 30___ 31___ 32___ 33___
34___ 35___ 36______________________________

26. Do you feel that your preservice education really prepared you adequately for the problems of teaching in a small rural school? Yes___ No___

27. Please list here any advantages that you can see to teaching in the small rural school. List as many as you wish.

28. Please list here any disadvantages that you can see to teaching in a small rural school. List as many as you wish.

The End

I thank you for your kind cooperation. Without your patience and help, this dissertation could not be completed.

# APPENDIX B

# SAMPLES OF LETTERS

STATE OF NEVADA
Department of Education
WESTERN STATES SMALL SCHOOLS PROJECT
CARSON CITY, NEVADA 89701

BURNELL LARSON
SUPERINTENDENT OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

MERLIN D. ANDERSON
PROJECT DIRECTOR

April 8, 1968

MEMORANDUM

TO: Superintendents of County School Districts

FROM: Merlin D. Anderson, Nevada WSSSP Director

RE: Study in the preparation of teachers for rural schools

Mr. Edgar Charles, Assistant Director for Subject Matter of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Small Schools is conducting a study in the preparation of teachers for rural schools. This is a nation wide study and will be utilized as a monograph for the clearinghouse and for the Department of Rural Education of N.E.A.

The areas for which he is obtaining information are: one teacher schools, elementary schools with one or less teachers per grade, secondary schools with 300 or less students 9 - 12 or fewer teachers than course offerings, and elementary - secondary combinations having 75 students per grade or less. Nevada has been arbitrarily selected by Mr. Charles to represent the far west region.

In going over the school organizations and enrollments for the State of Nevada, we have selected one or more schools in your district that we would like to invite to become a part of this study. The format which Mr. Charles has designed is very simple and for the most part consists of just checking blanks. Names of schools or teachers will not be a part of this study and therefore will not be used as a critical analysis of any particular district, school or teacher. If you feel that your district should not cooperate in such a study, please let me know by return mail not later than the 20th of this month. I would sincerely appreciate your cooperation in this study.

NEW MEXICO STATE UNIVERSITY

ERIC Clearinghouse on
Rural Education and Small Schools

Box AP, University Park Branch, Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001 Telephone: 505 - 646-2623

(Date)

Dear

In accordance with the (Date) letter sent by (Name) of your State Department of Education to all the rural school administrators in (State name) (and to all the County School Superintendents), I am extending an invitation to your school to participate in the described study. A sample copy of the questionnaire is enclosed for your examination.

Letters, questionnaires, and return envelopes have been prepared for teachers who have been chosen randomly from your faculty. When I receive your approval, I will send the material directly to each teacher.

I shall be looking forward to hearing from you shortly and I wish to convey my thanks to you for your anticipated cooperation. We feel that this study will be making a significant contribution to the progress of Rural Education.

Yours very sincerely,

Edgar B. Charles
Assistant Director

**NEW MEXICO STATE UNIVERSITY**

**ERIC Clearinghouse on**
**Rural Education and Small Schools**

Box AP, University Park Branch, Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001 Telephone: 505 - 646-2623

(Date)

Dear (Teacher's name):

Our Clearinghouse has currently been engaged in acquiring and disseminating information on rural education, but now we are going farther, and as subject matter specialist I am doing a research project which we believe will make a significant contribution to the progress of Rural Education.

The study, which covers 10 states from Maine to Nevada, is to determine not only what has been the preparation of teachers for rural schools but also what these teachers believe should have been included in their preparation. Further, it attempts to distinguish certain characteristics which may be typical of the rural teacher.

This material will be used both for my doctoral dissertation and as the subject of a monograph to be sponsored by this Clearinghouse and the Department of Rural Education of the NEA. The project has further been heartily endorsed by the Rural Education Specialist of the U. S. Office of Education.

(Name and title) of your State Department of Education has indicated his belief that you would be willing to cooperate in the study. (Name and local administrator) has given permission for us to contact you. Accordingly, I am enclosing a questionnaire and return envelope for your use. No identification of individuals or schools will appear in the study, as agreed with the State Department.

Your help in this study will be appreciated and I shall be looking forward to receiving your questionnaire.

Yours very sincerely,

Edgar B. Charles
Assistant Director

Encl.

# APPENDIX C

## NAMES OF COLLEGES SURVEYED

# COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES SURVEYED FOR RURAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Adams State College
Agnes Scott College
Auburn University
  (Vocational Agriculture Courses)
Ball State University
Boston University
Bowdoin College
Brandeis University
Brigham Young University
Carleton College
Centenary College of Louisiana
Central Washington State College
Clemson University
Coe College
Colby College
Colgate University
Concordia College
Concordia Teachers College
Cornell University
Creighton University
Denison University
De Paul University
Dickinson College
Duke University
Duquesne University
Eastern New Mexico University
Elmhurst College
Emory University
Fairleigh Dickinson University
Florida Atlantic University
Florida Southern College
Florida State University
Fordham University
Franklin & Marshall College
Gettysburg College
Grinnell College
Harvey Mudd College
Haverford College
Hillsdale College
Hiram College
Hofstra University
Illinois State University
Indiana State College
Indiana State University
Indiana University
Iowa State University

Johns Hopkins University
Kansas State College
Kansas State University
Kent State University
Lehigh University
Lock Haven State College
Louisiana State University
Macalester College
Mankato State College
Marquette University
Michigan State University
Millersville State College
Millsaps College
Monmouth College
Moorhead State College
Moravian College
Muhlenburg College
Muskingum College
New York University
Northeastern University
Northern Illinois University
North Texas State University
Northwestern University
Oberlin College
Occidental College
Ohio State University
Ohio University
Oklahoma State University
Oregon State University
  (Vocational Agriculture Courses)
Ouachita Baptist University
Pacific Lutheran University
Penn State University
Princeton University
Purdue University
Rider College
Ripon College
Rockford College
Rockhurst College
Rutgers, The State University
Slippery Rock State College
Southern Illinois University
Southern Methodist University
Stanford University
State University of New York
  at Buffalo
Swarthmore College
Temple University
Texas A & M University

Texas Christian University
Tulane University
University of Alabama
University of Arkansas
University of Denver
University of Florida
University of Houston
University of Illinois
University of Kentucky
  (Vocational Agriculture Courses)
University of Maine
University of Maryland
University of Michigan
University of Minnesota
University of Montana
University of New Hampshire
University of North Dakota
University of Oregon
University of Pittsburgh
University of Redlands
University of Rochester
University of South Carolina
University of Tennessee
  (Department of Agricultural Education)
University of Texas
University of Utah
University of Virginia
University of Washington
University of Wisconsin
  (Vocational Agriculture Courses)
Upsala College
Ursinus College
Wabash College
Wake Forest College
Washington & Lee University
Washington & Jefferson College
Washington State College
Washington University
Wayne State University
Western New Mexico University
West Virginia University
Wittenberg University
Yeshiva University

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